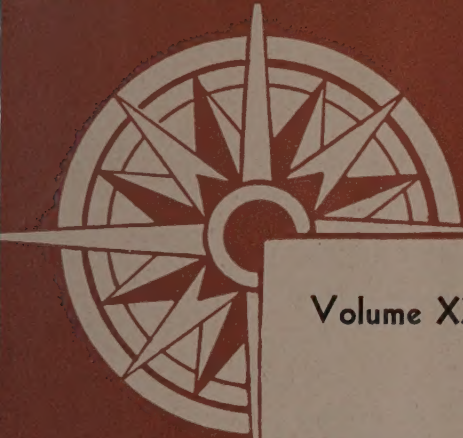


THE COMPASS

JOURNAL OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS



Volume XXVII

March 1946

Number 3

APPRAISING WAR'S EFFECT ON SOCIAL
WORK

INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR
SOCIAL WELFARE

BROADENING THE BASE OF SOCIAL
WORK

STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE

PERSONNEL EVALUATIONS

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK
University of Illinois
Navy Pier, CHICAGO

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THE COMPASS is published six times a year in November, January, March, April, June and September. Publication office, 374 Broadway, Albany 7, N. Y. Editorial and General office, 130 East 22nd Street, New York 10, N. Y. Edited by the staff. Entry as second-class matter at the post office at Albany, N. Y. Acceptance for mailing at the special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized June 28, 1924.

Subscription: Non-members \$1.00 per annum. Special student rate \$.50 per annum.

Subscription of members of the Association included in annual dues.

Analysis and Appraisal of Changes in Social Work Practice and Function During the War Years*

BY KENNETH L. M. PRAY

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BEFORE plunging nearer to the heart of this interesting and important subject before us, I would like to point out two basic considerations that seem to me to have some significance in determining our approach to this discussion. One carries a message of hope and promise; the other is a word of caution.

Social Work Today Contrasted with Problems in 1918

I think we are apt to overlook the significance of this meeting itself, of meetings like this, as evidence of the momentous change that has come over our whole professional outlook, our thinking and doing, within a relatively few years. Twenty five years ago we faced almost the identical situation we face today. A war of unprecedented scope and violence had come to an end. It had left indelible marks not only upon the social life of the people to whom our service was addressed, but upon the content, the spirit, and the method of that service itself. As a group we were not by any means totally unaware of these changes and their implications for social work and its future. We were certainly not oblivious of the new elements of need, the new directions of movement, which would come to view in a world recovering from unparalleled violence, trial and confusion. We wanted to measure up to the opportunity and obligation we faced. But we were not equipped to do so. In those days, both in looking backward and in looking forward, we lacked two fundamental factors that were essential for consistent professional judgment and action.

We lacked, first of all, self-conscious and self-confident professional competence. Even the achievements which we, as social workers, had to our credit in the First World War years—and they were by no means negligible—were viewed by others, and even by ourselves, as something almost individual and accidental in source and quality. They were not the expression of an organized, tested, content and process and method of service, upon which we all could confidently rely as the means of attaining a specific, defined professional end. We scarcely knew that is to say, and we were certainly hesitant to affirm that we knew, how and why we were effective when we seemed to be. In the second place, we lacked professional self-organization. We did not yet have the mechanism through which to join to-

gether readily to appraise service and achievement, to compare our differences, and to attain concert of thought and action in behalf of steadily advancing standards of service.

Both of these gaps have been partially—I think we may properly say, largely—filled in the intervening years. And they make all the difference between a blind groping after the stars, as in 1918, and an objective, discriminating, self-critical analysis of professional experience and professional goals in 1945. That difference is the measure of our progress toward professional maturity. If we can continue to build upon those two foundation rocks—genuine individual competency and faithful collective and mutual responsibility—we shall have the key not only to professional security and progress in the future but to sound professional judgment of past and present achievement.

And now a word of caution. The world-wide, overpowering emergency through which we have just passed, has of course, shaken every social institution, including the profession of social work, to its foundations, and it is of course well worth while to attempt to discover now just what it has done to reshape our tasks and redirect our efforts. But it is also worth while, it is in fact supremely important, I believe, to begin with a clear realization that this war was not a completely isolated episode. It was not a time utterly apart from the historic stream of human life. The problems it created, the influences it unleashed, were not totally new and different from those with which we had struggled before. It did not terminate all past problems. Life as we know it did not begin in 1940. The problems of war, time, and the problems the war leaves behind, are essentially the same problems men have faced always and everywhere. The same human nature is involved in them. Human beings are trying to cope with these problems in much the same way. They can use essentially the same kinds of help, on essentially the same terms. The same basic understandings, the same skills, the same time-tested philosophy, which we have been able slowly to articulate and haltingly to apply over a quarter-century of cumulative study and effort—these still are our most dependable resources, now as ever.

I stress this obvious principle because there is some dangerous temptation, I am inclined to believe, in a time like this to fasten our eyes too

* Paper given at New York City Chapter Meeting, October 16, 1945.

closely and exclusively upon the facts and the lessons of the emergency. It is altogether too easy to flit from one emergency to the next, with a sense of rather irresponsible relief and escape from the continual, basic problems still unsolved, from the disagreeable difficulties still unmastered. I am reminded of the Vermont farmer, of whom I heard recently. He had lived for years far up in the northern tip of the rugged Green Mountain State, alongside the New Hampshire border. Somebody raised the question as to just where the state boundary really belonged, and a government surveying party was sent up. They finally ran a true line, and found the farmer really lived in New Hampshire instead of Vermont. When he was told about it, he was mildly surprised, scratched his head and then smiled and said, "Waal, that's all right. Fact is, I rather think I like it better. I don't believe I could stand another of those Vermont winters anyhow." That old farmer's wishful thinking blinded him to the fact that the moving of an imaginary line in space did not change the climate or the soil. He could not so easily escape the rugged realities with which he had to struggle all his life. It is worth while reminding ourselves that this moving of an imaginary line in time—taking us from a state of peace to a state of war, and back again—does not change the fundamental conditions with which we have to contend, nor the demands these make upon our professional insights and disciplines. We must be alert to the differences that changing circumstances introduce; we must be prepared flexibly to adapt our individual and collective performance to these vital differences. But we must maintain our steady effort to find and to fill our own place in this one continuing, ongoing world in which we live. We must be something more than the emergency salvage corps of a disordered, disorganized society. We must see ourselves and help others to see us as partners in the normal, universal, continual task of helping all men to realize for themselves the benefits and blessings of a democratic society, in peace as in war, in prosperity as in depression, in days of accelerated progress and in times of relative stagnation or retrogression.

Social Work Dependent on Degree of Previous Preparation

It is extremely interesting in turning to the examination of our experience in the war years, to discover how completely our movement has been dependent upon the degree of our previous preparation—in the definition of our individual and collective responsibility, in the definition of the elements of competency that were required for the discharge of that responsibility, and in our capacity to adapt that competence with discriminating clarity to the new circumstances and new settings within which we operated. The period of these war years has been marked by

acceleration and intensification of trends already under way, rather than by revolutionary innovation or radical departure, either in the scope or the method of social work practice. The war years are one link in a long chain.

Significant Contemporary Developments

Let me suggest a number of developments that seem to me to be especially significant:

(1) Of first importance, I believe, in terms of social work function, that is, in the scope of its effort, is the steady movement away from its identification, both in our own minds and in the minds of the public, with service to types or classes of people—the dependent, defective, the delinquent, for example—and the growing recognition of its availability and usefulness to people of every social and economic stratum of our society.

(2) Closely related to this movement has been its developing association with a steadily expanding range of human interests and associations and institutions. It has found its way into closer and closer collaboration with every other service profession, and with many groups and institutions whose ultimate purpose and spirit and method have seemed in the past to be as distant as the poles apart from those that inspired and dominated social work undertakings.

(3) Finally, social work has become increasingly aware of itself as a part of something greater—a community process of planned growth and change, fruitful formulation and operation, both in day-to-day steps and in long-term programs, necessitating the integration of social work function and practice with every other specific knowledge, constructive art and technical skill available to the community.

It is not necessary, I am sure, to emphasize again the fact that these movements do not have their real roots in these war years. They reached far back into pre-war thinking and performance. But they were released for hastened consummation and fuller realization when the total strength of the total society was mobilized for a single, all-embracing purpose. The depression of the thirties had driven us out of the little secluded corner where we ministered to the needs only of the poor, the weak, the sick—the folks across the creek or the other side of the railroad, or beyond the dump. A cross-section of every community had come to our doors. Even before that emergency, we had begun to associate ourselves with the hospital and clinic, the court, the school, the church, industry—all those normal and universal social institutions which were parts of the life of every citizen—and there we had found the beginnings of a constructive working relationship with doctors, psychiatrists, psychologists, lawyers, ministers, teachers, business men, labor leaders, statesmen, whose interests and purposes, while different

in their specifics, had something in common with ours. And as we felt the impact upon our own service and opportunity for service, of the social policies and practices which these institutions, singly and in combination initiated and sustained, we had begun to make our voices heard in community councils, as the competent representatives of a vital interest at stake in the community's organization of its total life.

Use of Social Work in Armed Forces

Undoubtedly the most significant and decisive step forward in all these directions in war time was the outcome of the development and use of social work in the Armed Forces of the nation. That was the severest test to which our philosophy and our competency could possibly be put. There was something in the basic purpose of the whole enterprise which was repugnant to social workers. War is the epitome of compulsion, conquest, suppression of difference, and these were the very antithesis of everything social work had come to stand for, in the development of human relations. The essence of the military service was apparently the exercise of authority, the submergence of individual personality, the substitution of regimentation for freedom, while social work had built its practice upon the exemplification of a strictly voluntary relationship, within which a freely chosen individual purpose could be discovered and realized. Furthermore, here was a mass program, involving 10,000,000 people, who, in a few weeks or months, had to be moulded into one united force devoted to one end. The essence of social work, the basis of its whole experience, was in the process of individualization. The problem that faced us in becoming associated with the military enterprise was like the integration of creative hand craftsmanship with the principle of the Ford assembly line for mass production.

Could it be done? Could we find a place in that vast mechanism where our specific knowledge and skill could really be useful and effective? Where we could become a part of this community enterprise and still preserve our own integrity? It was done, and it was well done—not always and everywhere, not evenly and with equal effectiveness at every time and place where we were admitted and used by the Armed Forces—but on the whole, with amazing effectiveness and with the steadily mounting respect and the steadily increasing cooperation of those with whom we were brought into associations.

What was the basis of our capacity to meet this test? How were we made ready for this momentous occasion? How were we enabled to take advantage of this extraordinary opportunity to serve our society, and to demonstrate in actual achievement the fundamental values which we held in our custody? I venture to suggest several answers to that question. The first was our will-

ingness, our determination, to limit our part in the total operation to a defined and circumscribed task, inherently and specifically related to our previous responsibility and experience. In other words, we had achieved a reasonably clear definition of the scope of social work's functional responsibility, and we acted within the terms of that definition. The focus of that responsibility we had found in the concept of *relationship*. Our professional process was directed to helping people discover, maintain, restore or create a relationship, within the realities of their lives, which for them could be increasingly satisfying, constructive and productive, and which at the same time would be acceptable to the society of which they were a part. We were not concerned with the individual's own personal life, apart from the social relationships in which he was involved. We were not concerned with making the individual over, either in our image or in any other possible pattern. We were concerned solely with helping him face the realities of his social situation, helping him examine the alternatives open to him, and helping him muster the courage and the strength to make his own responsible choices and to accept the consequences of those decisions. Our knowledge and our skill was in that particular area; we knew how to establish a relationship with others through which they could experience the satisfaction of freedom along with those of cooperation, within which they could take help and still retain their own integrity, within which they could be a part and not need to be the whole.

That concept of our professional responsibility—defined, limited, could be differentiated from that carried by every other professional group, from every other element in Army life, from every other service that entered the life of the soldier. If held firm, clear and straight, in practice as in theory, it threatened nobody and nothing in the military service or outside. It was in truth, a helping function which fitted snugly into the complicated structure of community purpose and military policy and organization.

There was another element in that concept of our responsibility which strengthened our capacity to find and hold and fill our own place. We were ready to identify ourselves with the agency structure with which we were involved. We were not individual, independent practitioners pursuing in our own discretion purposes apart and different from those of others around us. We were parts of a whole, the representatives of an organization whose purpose however repugnant in some of its details, we could accept as right in its totality. We could operate therefore within the reality with which our clients were compelled to come to terms. We were identified in feeling and understanding with the individual, in his struggle to find an acceptable and useful relation with the society of which he was voluntarily or involun-

tarily, a part, and we were identified with the social structure to which he was trying to relate himself acceptably. In that mediative capacity we could help the military organization to face the reality of individual difference and we could help the individual soldier face the reality of Army life.

The ultimate significance of that achievement, I firmly believe, is in the fact that social work has defined itself in terms of specific services to be rendered, on the basis of specific knowledge and skill, related to specific problems. It need no longer be identified, either in its own view of itself, or in the public mind, only with vague social objectives which it shares with all social minded-citizens and all service professions. It stands on its own ground; it seeks its own defined ends by its own specific processes. People can seek its service with confidence, as self-respecting citizens in search of specific help, and not as mendicants or weaklings. The war years have given us a powerful forward impetus to that goal.

Social Work in New Settings

It is on precisely the same basis of professional clarity that social work has found its way during this war into the service of labor unions, of industry, of education, of medical care, of day nurseries, of neighborhoods, of groups of every kind and character. It has been prepared to offer a service, not to take over a problem.

It is significant too, that it is precisely where we have not yet become clear as to the boundaries of our service and our competence, where we have not recognized the limits or the focus of the responsibility we can accept, in relation to the total responsibility the individual carries for his own life, and where we have not seen clearly how our particular service—defined in these terms—fits in as a part, and not as the whole, of a larger program—that our proffered services have been least readily accepted and used by individuals and by the community as a whole. The whole field of so-called counseling grows around us everywhere like the vines in a jungle. In war time it has taken on scores of new and variegated forms. Where does our philosophy and experience, the content and method of our practice, fit into this complicated picture? Until we know better than we know now and can articulate more clearly what is the basis of our particular competence, the scope of our particular service in the counseling function—as it relates to the structure and purpose of the situations and organizations within which it is used—we can have no hope or expectation that we shall find either acceptance or achievement in these new areas of service. On the other hand we shall find our place here as in the employment service, in the insurances, in the public health program, in every aspect and every area of the expanding social services—we shall find a logical, natural, accep-

table place if we belong there—when we have first defined for ourselves the nature of the contribution which is ours, when we determine and accept the limits of our own capacity and responsibility, and when we demonstrate our willingness and our ability to work within all these varied structures of purpose and policy, as a specific part of a larger whole.

Participation in Formulation of Public Policy

Just one further word on the significant growth during war time in our sense of collective responsibility for participation in the development of community life in its larger context. I am sure you share with me some disappointment and regret that in the troublous days we have just passed through and in the present moment of decision on vastly important social issues, we have not been able, as a professional group, to have a larger part in the analysis of vital issues and in the formulation of public policy. It is obvious that we have not measured up completely to the opportunity and obligation we faced. But I think there has been notable progress nonetheless. Our failure, such as it is, reflects—again I must emphasize the fact—the lack of our preparedness in advance of the emergency, the need for continuous development, not jerky leaps forward in each new emergency. We had only begun, really, when the war came upon us, to accept this kind of responsibility as an inherent and inescapable part of our regular and total professional function. We were only beginning to strive to attain the kind of unity in philosophy and in purpose, and the agreement on method, which were essential for effective discharge of this part of our responsibility.

But when I remember the extraordinary effectiveness of the War Time Committee on Personnel, for example, in formulating and articulating the essential contribution of social work in the organization and conduct of indispensable war time services—the avenues which this committee and its constituent organizations have opened for the participation of social workers in the common national enterprise—I take heart and can affirm with conviction that social work is growing up, is approaching a mature conception of its total task and is utilizing its strength ably to the discharge of its total responsibility.

I cannot refrain however from reminding you once again that its uses of this opportunity—both its success and its failure—are directly related to the degree to which it was willing and able to determine and accept the limits of its own experience, its own responsibility and its own competence, and to abide by those limits. So long as we are unable to differentiate our own relation to problems from that of others equally interested in their solution, we are either helpless bystanders, or we are inadequate and therefore unrespected extensions of groups whose power is

their own, not ours. We cannot make a blueprint of an ideal economic order and we should not try; we cannot plan a perfect fiscal policy, nor even a proper distribution of all the powers of government among its three great levels of its structure in America. But we can have a part, we have had a part, in all those enterprises—a part defined by our specific experience, by the focus of our responsibility, and by our demonstrated competence. That part, I firmly believe, is bounded by our knowledge of the impact of these institutions upon the individuals to be served by them, the needs of people in relation to those services, the conditions prerequisite to their acceptance and full use of those services, and by our understanding through experience of the help people need and can use in relating themselves effectively to the opportunities and obstacles these institutions present. Whenever and wherever, during war time as before, and now and in the future, we really reach a common understanding of the meaning of our professional experience in those terms, and whenever we make available,

in specific, concrete data, the measured and tested outcomes of that experience, we shall be heard. We are moving to that clarity of conviction. We are mustering our strength with steadily mounting effectiveness. The war has taught us we still have far to go. But the war has also proved the validity of our philosophy and practice, and it has roused us to a new realization of our responsibility.

Through the progressive self-critical examination of our practice, the steady advancement of our competence in performance, and the continual pooling and marshalling of our collective professional experience, we have laid new foundations of a mature professionalism in these war time years. The future is ours to build. Let us get about that business with all the insight and power that each of us, in our individual spheres and all of us together, through this association, can muster. The world will not wait upon us, but it will give us welcome when we bring to its service a progressive responsible professional contribution to the perfection of human relationships.

Comments on Mr. Pray's Paper

Following are among the comments made by members of the New York City Chapter after Mr. Pray gave his paper.

CHILD WELFARE

Many practical changes have occurred in the field of child welfare during the war years. For the most part these changes have been dictated by the pressures of war created emergencies. Some of these practices were mere stop gaps and it is realized they must be discarded as quickly as possible. Others although originally undertaken because of manpower shortage are progressive measures of permanent value and should be retained. The majority of the changes have occurred in three general areas; in the use of untrained staff, in case work practice, and in the development of additional community resources.

In the first area we note certain changes in the use of non-professional staff; for example in the induction of workers from other fields to serve in child welfare, the introduction of apprentice workers seeking professional education while on the job, the increased activity and responsibility assumed by board members, extended use of volunteers, employment of children in institutional settings on a part-time basis and work assignments for children to develop their sense of independence. There is one further change which I am sure none of us would care to relinquish—an increase in the salary scale for both professional and non-professional workers in the child welfare field.

In the second area of changes in case work practice, we observe the agencies concerned with home-finding have taken the initiative in locating prospective foster parents and developing new boarding homes. They have also reviewed the standards for certification and licensing of boarding homes and have reached agreement on certain recurrent exceptions without lowering of essential standards. The agencies have also increased the board rate and we note a trend toward consideration of a board rate to be determined on a budgetary basis with inclusion of a charge for service. This change seems not only emergency-inspired but also to be related to a broadening conception of foster-home care as a service entitled to commensurate pay rather than one motivated by philanthropy.

A change is noted in the case work practice of child-caring agencies, particularly in relation to the parent who can afford to pay for care of the child, and the child who can contribute towards his own maintenance by part-time employment. The agencies have become more realistic and practical in their ability to work with the parent who is financially able to pay all or part of the cost of the service he is requesting.

Case work practice has been similarly accelerated in the adoption field in that infants are now considered for adoption at an earlier age than in the past. There also is advancement in case work with the unmarried mother to help her reach a decision as to keeping or surrendering the child.

In the third area, the development of additional resources in the community, the outstanding changes have been in the creation of new day-care centers, the extension of visiting-housekeeper programs, a centralized campaign for foster-home finding, and in the utilization of volunteers in all fields of child welfare.

This brief listing of the practices which have undergone change will immediately indicate how controversial some of these changes are. Nevertheless, it is important that social workers accept responsibility for a careful evaluation of these changes. Many of them have demonstrated new methods, and perhaps shortcuts, for carrying out our present program with greater efficiency, skill and better service to children. These changes should not be feared as undermining the security we have achieved through insistence on the maintenance of standards in the field of child welfare. One of the constant factors of sound social work practice is its recognition of the inevitability of change.

AMELIA M. IGEI

PUBLIC WELFARE

It is my opinion that the profession aside from the workers in the public welfare field is insufficiently aware of the enormous and important developments that have taken place in public welfare in the last ten years. The Social Security Act has recently celebrated its tenth birthday, and truly marked a milestone in social work history. From the point of view of social workers in public welfare, we need from the profession a more conscious and closer identification with it and we need the full impact of professional support in the advancement of social work under public auspices.

One such avenue presents itself in the recent discussions around the need for a cabinet post for health, education and social welfare. Government expresses its concern for public welfare at the present time through a dozen or more uncoordinated agencies. Public opinion is now being molded toward the need for government to concern itself with social welfare in a well defined coordinated public post responsible to the chief executive. There is much at stake for social work in this movement, and we social workers need to make up our minds that we want such an office and put our full strength behind its achievement.

A third matter about which we in the public field need help from the whole profession is in the realization of the concepts in public assistance administration of a client's right to assistance, and his right to an unrestricted use of his grant. These two rights are not yet fully understood, let alone implemented, in all states. If we are to achieve the full intent of the Social Security Act as a way of life for many thousands of families we must talk through among ourselves as pro-

fessional workers, and understand, and make real, the philosophy from which this concept of right derives.

Fourthly it may be trite to say, but nevertheless true that the public social services will be only as good as the personnel engaged in it. Here is a limitless job for the profession; to be a factor in the civil service movement, to take on a responsibility for the establishment of standards both in training and in salaries, and to participate in active recruiting for the public field.

ANNE H. REBECK

MILITARY SOCIAL WORK

Military psychiatric social work began early in 1942. It has since developed into a recognized service to the Army, functioning under the direction of psychiatrists, and dealing with soldiers presenting problems of adjustment to their military duties.

Military social work has been practiced in a variety of installations—training centers, combat divisions, general and convalescent hospitals, rehabilitation centers, etc. It began without any existing framework in the Army, and in spite of much resistance, progressed because of the worker's conviction of its professional usefulness. Over a period of time military social work continued to demonstrate its usefulness and gained a small degree of acceptance in the Army on the whole. With the aid of progressive medical leadership and the effect of case work service to officers and enlisted men, the responsibilities of social work have increased. Maximum effectiveness was reached where social work was able to become a part of the so-called clinical team—psychiatrist, psychiatric social worker, and psychologist. As a profession, social work was faced with the necessity of translating basic convictions of a helping process to the military setting. It could not afford some of the "luxuries" of civilian practice as sometimes characterized by such statements, "We need more information about the problem", "We will have to devote more time to understanding the situation," or "We will continue working on this next week." "Time" in the Army usually means "now." Decisions must be reached immediately. The commanding officer who must know whether or not he can count on a certain man to fill a vacancy in his unit must have the answer "today" not "tomorrow"—because "tomorrow will be too late." Social work in the Army therefore could not afford time to "study a case" or use time to determine whether "the agency could render the service," as these concepts are often used. Social work had to make itself responsible for evaluations, decisions, and treatment as they could be given in the immediate study of the case. Social workers found many specific services in the Army such as assignment; reassignment, disposition to

duty or discharge, group therapy, individual counseling, change of locality, assistance to officers in handling men in difficulty; all of which became basic tools. Where these tools were used along with professional skill, they made case work a service to the Army as well as to the individual.

Briefly, the following are some of the adaptations and areas of change which have come out of this experience. Military psychiatric social workers have questions of the degree of their applicability to civilian case work practice, the kind of interpretation given to these changes, and the general contribution they can make toward the progress of case work.

1. In interviewing to skillfully focus on those problems which demand immediate consideration; and exercise the professional discipline necessary to part with irrelevant material and discussion.
2. To maintain a realistic perspective between the individual and his setting it is necessary to understand and accept the problems of the "Army community."
3. To be able in a brief interview under conditions of pressure (limited time and volume of work) to give help, even though not complete, and at the same time maintain quality of service. The time for an interview may be ten minutes and if one is fortunate a half hour.
4. In the area of help, to have worked out a form of group counseling or group therapy which makes it possible to give guidance and specific help to large numbers of soldiers at the same time. One might say—a group case load. (The content of the material would depend upon the installations and nature of the soldiers' problems).
5. To use recording only in terms of its functional purpose, the specific service and help rendered and not in terms of the many problems of the soldier in the overall situation.
6. To use "interpretation" of emotional problems with the non-professional groups and individuals in the way that these people can themselves contribute towards a positive mental hygiene approach in carrying out their job responsibilities.
7. To have helped essentially non-dependent groups and individuals whose problems were largely precipitated by military service and who in community life have represented the self-sustaining individuals.

The military experience has increased the respect for the inherent strength of people who, after clarification of any related emotional dilemma or use of service are able to carry on as useful individuals. We have learned to accept the fact

that people do not want or need to be involved in a complete helping process except as brought out through their own choice. Such choice permits people to use help without becoming dependent on its form or agent. This we believe points to a more mature use of case work skill where we still have much to learn. It is a use of case work skill which, if the profession is to realize its often discussed ambitions, would validate its service to many new groups; to mention only a few—labor, industry, teaching.

There are questions concerning social workers (untrained according to civilian standards but so designated in the Army by virtue of their assignment and jobs) who have taken a real interest in the field. What opportunities will there be for these men who want forman training and experience but because of age, lost time, dependents and inadequate G.I. benefits, are groping for realistic help? Could a National Board composed of representatives from professional organizations, schools of social work, military services, be established to pass individual judgment on qualifications, special benefits, scholarships, and experience credit. There will be a real loss to the profession which has widely publicized its needs for more personnel if these men are unable to realize their potential contributions to the field.

T/Sgt. FRANK THEODORE GREIVING

GROUP WORK

Group work has reached the stage in its professional development when it must pass quickly from adolescence to adulthood. Prior to the outbreak of the war group work was developing rapidly. A professional body of knowledge was being accumulated as a result of the recording of significant group experience and of thorough analysis and interpretation of this experience. Close working relationships between case workers and group workers were being developed. Group therapy was in its early years. Social work schools offering group work specialization were meeting increased demands from prospective students. Agencies were beginning to ask for trained workers in filling group work positions.

The war experience slowed down some of these developments. The quality in recording had to be sacrificed in many agencies. Throughout the field untrained and inexperienced personnel had to carry major supervisory responsibilities. In some quarters case work and group work relations became strained due to the scarcity of experienced trained group workers in agencies. There were other effects of major and minor importance which could be mentioned.

The gains during the war, however, are of more importance to the future development of group work than the losses. While there was a temporary loss in work with small groups, there was

a wealth of experience developed with large groups during the war on the home front in such activities as teen-age canteens, block parties, salvage collections, victory corps and patriotic rallies. There was even a wider application of work with large groups in the army camps and naval bases, in the Red Cross clubs and USO centers. Methods of group treatment and group therapy underwent significant experimentation throughout the war period. Agencies which had become set in their programming were able to adapt their services to meet emergency needs of war workers, service men, children of working mothers, and young adolescents. In general, it was a healthy though trying period for group work.

Are we group workers ready to face the responsibilities, opportunities and problems which are now on our doorsteps? The answer has to be a "yes"—if—. A few of the qualifying aspects in developing group work to meet the needs in this post war era are briefly:

1. We must improve the personnel standards within our agencies. Salaries as a whole should be raised for they are too low to encourage large numbers of men and women to enter group work and to keep many of our promising younger workers now in the field. Job classifications should be established and advancement in position as well as salary should be provided within agencies.
2. Professional social work education facilities should be increased. All of the approved schools should take immediate steps to add group work specialization to their curricula. This, of course, requires the agencies and planning councils to be willing and able to provide adequate field work experience for students. Short term training courses and institutes for staff workers should be organized by professional schools, universities, or councils of social agencies for the benefit of the group workers who cannot arrange to take full time study.
3. Group work and recreation leaders who went into the armed forces, Red Cross and USO are now returning to civilian life. Some joint effort should be made to get them back into the field. Also there should be provision for adequate guidance to those men and women not engaged in group work before the war, who have developed special abilities in their war experience. Many of them will want to continue in this type of work. Students in colleges or recent graduates who have the necessary personal equipment for group work should be recruited.

4. Group workers must define what they can do and cannot do and then discover the knack of interpreting their job to the public. The general public, including contributors and members of Boards, are often hazy about what our functions are and sometimes this is due to the confusion in our own minds. What is our relation to delinquency? Do we have a responsibility for unaffiliated groups in our communities? Can private agencies do a cover-all recreation job for a community and at the same time develop a qualitative group work program? What are the functions of tax-supported recreation agencies? How should they be related to voluntary agencies? What do we mean by intensive group work? Why do we feel that trained mature leadership is essential? What responsibilities are not professional in character and consequently can be filled by inexperienced and untrained workers, paid or volunteer? The public will pay for group work if they understand the what and why of our job.

5. It is very important that we continue our efforts to establish better professional practice in working with individuals in group and in achieving social results through group experience. In order to do this, however, we must interest ourselves in the total group life in the community. We must realize that without knowing the total group experience of individuals in schools, churches, families, labor unions and other groups, we cannot expect to reach our goals. Our knowledge of and relation to these social forces will greatly determine the success we have in developing individuals and aiding them to improve community life. The four walls of our agencies should not be limiting factors in achieving progress. Adequate housing, good public recreational facilities, sound interracial relations and other social improvements are necessary for healthy community life and we group workers have a serious responsibility as stimulators and guides in helping our groups to work for these essentials.

In the development of group work during the next few years, we need the support and understanding of other fields of social work. Group work, case work and community organization, the basic processes in social work, have a team work job to do in which each has an important responsibility. Specialization is a necessity in practice but sound practical inter-relationships between special fields are essential if we are to achieve the basic objectives of social work.

CLYDE MURRAY

Broadening the Base of Social Work*

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WHEN we speak about broadening the base of social work, we may have one of two different problems in mind:

1. The vesting of control of social agencies in groups more widely representative of the total community than most agency boards now are;
2. The extension of the social services to the suburban areas surrounding large cities where population growth has been greatest and where most of the giant industrial plants are now being located.

Both are questions of great current interest in Chicago and elsewhere and I planned originally to introduce both topics here tonight. However, because of limited time, I shall discuss only the first topic: the reconstituting of our social agency boards to include representation of groups not now participating in the control and development of social agency programs.

In discussing this topic we, as a professional group, are interested neither in bestowing praise for what has been accomplished nor in fixing blame for our present deficiencies. Our interest is in arriving at an accurate statement of the facts. Once the facts are before us, it should be easier to determine what should be done and what can be done.

CIO's Resolution on Participation—1939

Let me begin by quoting part of a resolution that was adopted by the Congress of Industrial Organizations at its convention in San Francisco in 1939. This particular resolution contained a criticism of one of our best known social agencies—the American Red Cross. After pointing out that workers are a chief source of support of the Red Cross, the resolution called upon the organization to “afford suitable representation to organized labor in recognition of its contribution and furtherance of the objectives of the Red Cross.”¹

In speaking for the adoption of this resolution, one of the national labor leaders said: “There are chapters and units of the Red Cross in various sections of the country that are nothing more nor

less than exclusive clubs. . . . It is time for the American Red Cross to understand that over 40,000,000 Americans earn their living when they can get employment . . . and if confidence and cooperation are to continue in the effective work of that organization, they must consider the views of labor and give labor representation on their governing bodies.”

It is characteristic of resolutions that they try to make their point in a minimum number of words. Hence they seldom tell the whole story. A person from another country, such as England, might conclude from reading this resolution, that the Red Cross is the only one of our private agencies in which labor thinks it is under-represented. We know this is not the case. Labor is under-represented, or completely unrepresented, in the great majority of our private social agencies, both sectarian and non-sectarian.

Those unfamiliar with the facts might also interpret the resolution to mean that our private social agencies are unfriendly to organized labor. Certainly, in the great majority of cases, this would not be true. Most of our labor leaders would agree that, in spite of under-representation of labor on governing boards, there have been wide areas within which cooperative relationships have prevailed.

Who Are the Board Members?

To a considerable extent the composition of agency boards is an inheritance from the past. Over the years board membership came to be regarded in the community as a symbol of civic leadership and social prestige. Hence, many people with wealth and leisure sought positions on these boards. Labor, until recently, has seldom manifested a comparable desire to obtain this type of recognition.

Likewise sheer force of necessity has to some extent determined the course of agency action in selecting board members. Until a decade or so ago it was almost a matter of self-preservation to enlist the participation of persons of large means. In many cities, prior to the depression of the 1930's, there was a very flimsy development of the public social services. This meant that certain necessary welfare work had to be done by the private agencies. New York City provided a particularly conspicuous illustration of this type of situation. In the years preceding the

* An address given at the 1945 Annual Meeting of the Chicago Chapter of the American Association of Social Workers.

¹ Quoted in News Letter of the Social Service Employees Union, Local 39, United Office and Professional Workers of America, C.I.O., November 15, 1939.

depression, there was no provision in the nation's largest city for non-categorical *public* home relief. Hence the private agencies had to carry the load. Wherever this is the case, it is easy to understand why wealth is a persuasive determinant in selecting board members. If an agency carries a very large segment of responsibility for operating an essential service in the community, such as relief of destitution, it naturally seeks assurance that it will not fail in its duty because of want of funds. Board members who can obtain large contributions from their personal friends thus become a kind of insurance that the budget will be raised.

Relationship Between Fund-Raising and Board Membership

Of course the need to be reasonably sure that the annual budget will be raised continues, though not with the same urgency as formerly. The private agencies have long since decided that they cannot and should not try to carry total responsibility for any large public service. Most of them are convinced that their greatest contribution can be made by restricting intake and by focusing upon experimentation, demonstration, and community organization. The importance of their contribution in the community is therefore determined by the character and quality of their program rather than by the volume of work undertaken. Under these circumstances the agencies are not so dependent as formerly upon board members who can keep contributions at a level that will meet the demand for service in the community.

In the cities where the private agencies are supported chiefly by joint fund-raising bodies, a similar change has occurred. When the agency faced an obligation to provide a large volume of service, the prestige of wealth was an important qualification for board members. Individuals who were themselves very large contributors to the community chest and enjoyed the personal confidence of the fund-raising group were obviously in a strong position in presenting the agency's requests to the budget committee. Now that some of the basic services are provided by public welfare departments, the agencies are free to take greater risks. If they want a widely representative board, they can, if necessary, pay the price this gain might entail. But there is reason to doubt whether a genuinely representative board would necessarily lack persuasiveness in presenting the agency's requests to the budget committee, provided the members really understood the program and could explain effectively the developments the agency hoped to initiate.

How Recent Is Labor's Interest?

Reverting for a moment to the C.I.O. resolution quoted earlier, let us recognize and underscore another of its omissions. The resolution gives no hint of the recency of labor's interest in the social

services. The average reader might easily gain the impression that labor has long been eager to participate in the development and administration of the social services in this country. The record of American history shows that this is not the case, except in occasional isolated instances. It is a fair generalization to say that, until recently, organized labor in the United States has manifested very little interest in the social services, either public or private.

In this respect labor in this country stands in sharp contrast to the labor movements in certain other countries—notably England. I do not mean to imply that British labor has shared widely in the management of the private agencies in England for, in general, it has not. But it has a long record of interest in the social services and concern to expand and improve them. This interest has expressed itself in two ways in England, (1) labor has been very articulate in pressing for extensions and improvements in the basic public social services, (2) labor has developed a good many social services of its own, such as cooperatives, friendly societies, mutual aid organizations and the like.

Labor leaders are among the first to deplore the lack of similar labor activities in this country. Even such a fundamental development as the Social Security Act of 1935 was obtained, as one labor leader recently said, "without enough organized support from American labor to suggest that the American worker knew or cared what it was all about." Concern for private agency programs was correspondingly undeveloped. Although workers contributed to community chest drives, they were apparently indifferent about the programs these drives supported. At any rate there was no articulate demand for board membership or for participation in social planning programs.

Turning Point in Labor's Interest—Outbreak of European War

The outbreak of war in Europe in 1939 marked a turning point in labor's attitude. The first major development was the organization, by both of the labor groups, of independent programs to relieve war-created suffering abroad. These programs were carried on by two national committees known respectively as the United Nations Relief Committee of the A. F. of L. and the National C.I.O. War Relief Committee. Funds were channeled into the treasuries of these two committees from local unions in all parts of the country. Although accurate figures are not available, estimates suggest that the total sum thus contributed by the organized labor movements to their own and other war relief programs in the year 1942-43 was in the neighborhood of \$50,000,000. This was a sum much too large to be ignored by organizations planning to launch nation-wide drives for the support of war-related charities. Specifically,

the American Red Cross and the newly-created National War Fund recognized the danger of competition from a third annual collection of this magnitude. They also saw clearly the need to enlist the support of so productive a source of income if their own large goals were to be reached.

Labor's Agreements with ARC and National War Fund

Accordingly a series of conversations was held in which a mutually satisfactory plan of cooperation was sought by the leaders of organized labor on the one hand and representatives of the Red Cross, the National War Fund, and the local community chests on the other. Ultimately these conferences resulted in the signing of agreements by the parties at interest. The details of these agreements were modified several times during the course of the war as experience indicated the need for revisions. For our purposes it is not necessary to consider all of the terms of the agreements nor to trace the changes in them. We are interested primarily in the provisions that relate to the control of agency policies. In this area, the agreements are a landmark in the history of the relationships between organized labor and social work.

Under the terms of the agreements, organized labor instructed all local affiliates to cease sending funds for war relief purposes to the national headquarters of the unions. Instead they were urged to make their contributions locally, to the local Red Cross and the local War Chest. In turn, representatives of both labor organizations were accorded membership on the important national boards and committees, such as the governing board of the National War Fund and the national campaign committees. Moreover the national organizations agreed to urge local affiliates throughout the country to give similar representation in each community to local labor leaders. Finally both the Red Cross and the National War Fund agreed to reimburse the regional representatives of both national labor committees for necessary expenditures incurred in promoting the two annual war relief drives (Red Cross and National War Fund).

Thus, during the war, both labor groups maintained at least one full time paid campaign worker in each of the regions into which the country was divided. These workers spent half of the year in organizing union workers to support the Red Cross drive and the other half in stimulating them to contribute to the local war chests, which included both the National War Fund and the local community chest. These regional representatives also were influential in re-enforcing the requests of the Red Cross and the National War Fund that the local chapter and the local chest include labor representatives on the governing board and the campaign committee.²

Response of Local Groups to Labor's Requests

I have no country-wide figures to indicate how extensively local groups responded to the national requests that they give representation to organized labor. Here in Chicago, as we all know, the directive was fully observed. Labor representatives are serving on the campaign committees, the budget committee, and the governing board. Reports from a scattered group of other cities suggest that similar developments have occurred in many communities. Perhaps it is a safe guess that the story is different in open-shop towns and in places where the unions are feeble. But there can be no doubt that the agreements at the national level enormously increased the amount of labor participation at the local level.

We must remember however that this expansion was mainly among the fund raising organizations. Can we assume that the functional agencies have followed suit? Here again accurate nation-wide statistics are wanting. The evidence suggests that some broadening of the base has occurred, but not enough to encourage belief that genuine democratization is in the offing. Such factual material as is available leads me to conclude that Chicago has gone at least as far as most cities. Yet the development here can scarcely be regarded as revolutionary. A news item dated May, 1944, announced the election of a C.I.O. representative to serve on the board of the Chicago Urban League. "This is the 13th C.I.O. member selected to serve on governing boards of Chicago social agencies," the article proudly declared. Perhaps it is a fair guess that an equal number of A. F. of L. members have been similarly honored. This would mean that organized labor has about 25 or 30 representatives serving on the boards of Chicago agencies. But the total personnel of the boards of private agencies in Chicago is in the neighborhood of 6,000. Union labor has 700,000 members in Chicago. With their families they make up at least half of the total population. Thus far they hold less than one per cent of the seats on the governing boards of our social agencies.

² The arrangement whereby the Red Cross and the National War Fund reimbursed the labor organizations for the salaries and expenses of these regional representatives was bitterly attacked by Frank Kent in a series of articles in his syndicated column during the autumn of 1945. These attacks were detrimental to the war chest campaigns then in progress and will undoubtedly hamper the Red Cross drive in the spring of 1946. Although Mr. Kent's articles contained few, if any, overt misstatements, they omitted so many important facts that the net result was a misrepresentation of the situation. Any large-scale financial drive requires the employment of a sizable staff of full time paid employees. The only difference between the regional labor representatives and the writer, who served as a full time paid employee in the three campaigns of the Chicago War Chest, was that the former were selected by the labor groups and focussed their efforts exclusively upon the organizing of labor support. In any unionized community, an employed staff must be retained to organize the campaigns among the union groups.

Chicago Council of Social Agencies' Plans

Another interesting development that promises to increase labor participation in Chicago's social work was inaugurated by the Council of Social Agencies in March, 1944. The broad purpose of this project is to foster closer relationships between labor and social work. Various means of attaining this goal have been adopted or are under consideration. For example, several labor counselor training courses have been held, and others are in prospect. These courses seek to give shop stewards and other labor leaders sufficient knowledge of the social resources of the community to enable them to refer their fellow workers to the agency best equipped to help them. The need for this type of educational project was clearly established by a preliminary committee appointed by the Council. This committee reported that the vast majority of the union members knew practically nothing about the local social agencies and had only very vague notions about where to seek the various kinds of service available in the community.

Another function of the Council's new project is to assist the social agencies and the labor unions in setting up cooperative undertakings. Among the joint efforts envisaged in the Council's prospectus are: "special recreation projects for workers; joint consideration by an agency and labor groups of the needs of an industrial community; development of child welfare and family services for groups of workers; and a comprehensive health examination plan for union members." It is also hoped that the project will develop a list of qualified and interested union leaders whose names can be made available to social agencies that wish to add labor representatives to their boards and committees.

The Council's written plan for this labor-social work project suggests that Chicago is by no means the first community to tackle the problem. After referring to "the precedents already established in many large cities," the prospectus adds the following specific information, "In other cities, for example, in Detroit, Philadelphia, and Minneapolis, the lead in the stimulation of interest in labor groups has been taken by the Council of Social Agencies followed by the Community and War Fund. The opposite has been true in Chicago, where labor groups have been more active in the financing of social work than in the field of social planning. Historically, the leadership of social agencies has been drawn from the top business men."

Postwar Developments Reflect Labor's Interest

If, as the foregoing evidence suggests, social agencies are beginning to seek closer relationships with labor, some broadening of the base of social work is likely to ensue. For labor has recently made abundantly clear its belief that the social

services, as one of the costliest and most important areas of group life, must henceforth be regarded as one of its chief interests. For example, in reporting the agreements relating to labor participation in the war chests, referred to above, Philip Murray, president of the C.I.O., said to the delegates attending the national C.I.O. convention in Boston in 1942: "Our National Committee has arranged for C.I.O. representation everywhere on the local, regional, and national boards of the War Chests, and hundreds of our leaders are now serving on these bodies. This is one of the most important milestones of the year, showing how C.I.O. is assuming more and more responsibility in the leadership of community life. We must integrate our organizations into our communities, lending to this new effort everywhere the social fervor and vitality which characterizes the C.I.O."

Following V-J Day, the National C.I.O. War Relief Committee was transformed into the National C.I.O. Community Services Committee. The announced objective of the new committee is to prevent the subsiding of labor's wartime interest in the social services and to develop widespread labor participation in the peace-time welfare programs of the community. An article in a recent issue of "Citizen C.I.O."³ the new publication of the Community Services Committee, announced some of the plans the group has in mind: "Community Chests and organized labor must work out a program of cooperation of an even greater scope than during the war years. The demand for the services of the welfare agencies which are supported by the campaigns will certainly increase rather than diminish during the long period of readjustment. Labor must be accorded a greater share in the administrative end of the agencies through increased membership on the policy-making boards and in other posts of responsibility. . . . When the long hard road of reconversion to peace time economy has been traveled, C.I.O. will still be found maintaining its position as a major factor in the success of public welfare programs." Thus, with labor actively seeking representation and with an increasing number of agencies willing to grant it, some further progress in this area seems likely to follow.

What of Negro Representation on Agency Boards?

Let us turn now to a consideration of Negro representation on the boards and committees of our agencies. A year or so ago I attended a meeting at the Central Y.W.C.A., called by the Chicago Council of Social Agencies. It was an excellent meeting. Edwin Embree, Horace Cayton and other leaders in the field of race relations spoke and there was vigorous discussion. At the end a resolution was adopted, urging local agencies to consider the inclusion of Negroes on their

³ Citizen C.I.O., Vol. I, No. 3, January, 1946, page 19.

governing boards. Each delegate was asked to report this recommendation to the agency he represented. I do not know how extensively the agencies have responded to this suggestion. A few, of course, such as the Y.W.C.A., adopted long ago a policy of including Negroes on the board and on various committees. A majority of the agencies however still elect white members only, though ten per cent of the population of this city is Negro and Negroes usually constitute more than ten per cent of the client group.

I think the resolution adopted at the Council meeting has undoubtedly been very useful in raising questions at the meetings of nominating committees. I know of one agency in which two successive nominating committees have discussed the Council resolution and have made some inquiries in an effort to obtain the names of qualified Negroes. Thus far this particular agency has not elected a Negro, but I think it will eventually do so. The board agreed that it did not want to include a Negro merely because of his race, but that it was willing to elect a Negro who possessed the proper qualifications.

The discussions of this board disclose one of the obstacles that prevents wider Negro representation on agency boards. The fact is that those with the power to nominate and elect simply do not have an acquaintanceship among Negroes. I think the Negro leaders in Chicago would agree that little would be accomplished by adding to our agency boards persons who had few actual or potential qualifications. They could further point out that, among the Negroes of Chicago, may be found many college graduates, professional men and women, successful business executives, officers and leaders of labor unions, civic organizations, churches and the like. In other words, a supply of qualified Negroes is at hand. One of our chief problems is to find ways to acquaint nominating committees with these individuals.

In recent years Chicago has been outstanding among the cities of the country for the vigor of its attack upon the problems of race relations. The work of the Mayor's Committee on Race Relations, and of other organizations with similar objectives, has slowly but surely produced results. Most informed Chicagoans now realize that the improvement of race relations occupies a position of top priority among community needs. They also know that many of our social problems manifest themselves in their most acute forms in Negro neighborhoods. Social agencies, perhaps more than most other types of organizations, need informed and articulate Negroes on their boards who can interpret these problems to the policy-making group and to the staff, and who can observe and report the results of agency activities in the Negro neighborhoods. There is reason to believe that some agencies now realize the impor-

tance of enlisting Negro leaders who can make contributions of this character. I believe many other agencies will gradually follow suit.

Participation of Foreign-Language Groups

Other minority groups whose potential contribution to the community's social work has been largely overlooked live in the so-called foreign language neighborhoods. Twenty years ago almost one-third of the people in Chicago were foreign born. A generation of restrictive immigration policies has substantially reduced this proportion. But even today the foreign born, plus the first generation native born who identify with them, constitute a very sizable proportion of our population. For instance, we have all been told many times that the Polish-speaking households in Chicago outnumber those of pre-war Warsaw.

Many of these foreign language communities have for years supported and operated social agencies of their own. Contacts between these agencies and the endorsed community-wide agencies have been very few and far between. Undoubtedly the continuance of the foreign language agencies has to a considerable degree retarded the assimilation of the groups they serve. This handicap could be counterbalanced, however, if leaders in the foreign language neighborhoods could be induced to participate actively in the programs of the community-wide agencies.

As in the case of organized labor, the war provided a new opportunity to enlist the interest of the foreign language groups. Many of these groups were very keenly interested in the foreign relief agencies, such as Polish Relief, Greek Relief, and others. These foreign relief agencies were supported by the National War Fund, which in most cities, raised its funds in a joint drive with the local community chest. Thus a single annual financial campaign in the war years combined the foreign relief agencies in which the foreign language groups were vitally concerned with the permanent local charities in which it was obviously desirable to enlist their interest. Here in Chicago a special department of the war chest was created, under the direction of our fellow-member, Elizabeth Wilson, to promote the participation of the foreign language group. From the outset the objective was to create attitudes which would facilitate continued participation of these groups after their own war relief programs ceased and only the local permanent agencies remained. Unquestionably this department of the war chest succeeded in recruiting many foreign language leaders who had not participated prior to the war. Whether our permanent community fund will now be able to retain the allegiance of these groups cannot as yet be predicted.

No figures have been compiled to show how many communities utilized the war emergency

to recruit support among foreign language groups. I know that comparable projects were launched in some other large cities, for example, Los Angeles. But, regardless of what has or has not been accomplished, I think most of us would agree that cities with large foreign language groups should not be permanently satisfied with an arrangement which leaves these large segments of the population completely inert in relation to the community's welfare services.

Some of you may have heard the story of the two thirsty men lost in the desert with only half a cup of water between them. One said with dismay, "Our cup is half empty." The other exclaimed hopefully, "Our cup is half full." In the same way the question we are discussing can be looked at from a pessimistic or from an optimistic point of view. We can say, "Private social work is still largely in the hands of a small, unrepresentative group." Or, on the other hand, we can evaluate the situation as follows: "Social work appears to be committed to a broadening of the base of participation and has actually been making some headway in bringing in racial and foreign language groups—and particularly labor groups." But, no matter which way we look at the question, there are two very realistic considerations that should be mentioned.

Realistic Considerations in Agency Board Composition

We have been told by most of our recent leaders, from President Roosevelt and Frances Perkins on down, that they believe the best life for Americans can be achieved through the so-called free enterprise system, or capitalist democracy. I think it is fair to say that, under our system, the production of goods and services is determined by the individual and corporate producers. In other words, economic power is not democratically controlled. The control in social agencies is to a considerable extent a reflection of the controls exercised in our economy as a whole. I do not know whether it is realistic to expect that those who provide the major support of our private social services are going to be willing to finance programs in which majority control rests in the hands of those who supply less than half of the financial support. The corporate plan of management that has been so successful in business and industry has been largely copied in private universities, hospitals, and social agencies. And the corporate plan of management means that the majority stockholders exercise control.

Some of the groups now dominant in social agencies are apparently willing to accept a broadened base of participation. Although this would not necessarily transform the present majority into a minority, it would at least bring new points of view to bear upon questions of policy and would open up new channels of interpretation.

The obligation to share in the directing of welfare programs rests, at least in theory, upon all groups in the community. Any group that thinks it has been denied the opportunity to shoulder this responsibility should keep in mind the recent experiences of organized labor. Labor obtained representation in social work by aggressively requesting it.

Our second realistic consideration relates to the emotional component in behavior. Social workers certainly know that emotion governs conduct at least as much as intellect. This means, I think, that if there are genuine hostilities between groups, it is futile to expect that they will work together harmoniously on social agency boards. Concretely, if the present members of a board are definitely anti-labor or anti-Negro, you probably cannot accomplish much by trying to bring labor or Negro representation onto the board. I believe a broadly representative board is genuinely productive only under one of the following conditions: (1) the members do not have strong emotional reactions against one another; (2) interest in the program is so intense that people are willing to join hands with those they may not like in order to promote the social welfare objective.

Public Agency Boards

At present the boards of public agencies appear to be much more broadly representative of various community groups than the boards of the private agencies. Take the Chicago Housing Authority as an illustration. The chairman of this five-member board is a Negro. Among about six hundred local housing authorities now operating in the United States, Chicago is thus the first to have a Negro chairman. All three of the major religious groups are represented on the Authority—Catholic, Jewish, and Protestant. One member would undoubtedly be classified as a capitalist. Another is a labor leader—the President of the Chicago Building Trades Council. The others are white collar or professional men, two of them university professors, and the third the manager of a private housing venture.

A few years ago a student of mine made a study of the county welfare boards in Indiana. His data showed that most of them were quite broadly representative of the various important groups in the community. Scattering bits of evidence from other states suggest that in most places the public agency boards are not drawn predominantly from any one segment of the community. Of course most of these boards are appointed by elected officials, many of whom undoubtedly distribute these appointments with a view to pleasing large blocs of voters.

The boards of public agencies, as a rule, are small. Often they consist of three, five or nine members. As an educational force, these public

boards are therefore a very small army in comparison with the private agency boards of twenty or thirty members. If the private agency boards were equally representative, their capacity to interpret to the total community should be much greater than that of the small public agency boards.

What Is the Outlook?

One final point should be touched upon: Why are we so concerned that both public and private agency boards should be representative. Several reasons could be given, but I want to mention only one. The big developments in social work in the past few decades have been in case work and in public welfare administration. The major development in the next thirty years will probably be in community organization. The big problems that face us—housing, better distribution of health services, the extension of social security and the like—cannot be tackled by the individual treatment methods of case work, and obviously they will not be solved by merely seeking to administer

effectively the public welfare services already authorized. The solution of these problems implies improved community organization. Our efforts must therefore focus upon the integration of group forces for the attainment of these objectives.

All social agencies, and particularly the private agencies, should make a major contribution to this movement. They can best do so by intimately affecting the thinking and modifying the attitudes of many groups in the community. If most board members come from one group, presumably the thinking of that group will be affected by the board experiences of its representatives. If the board members come from many groups, the insight of many groups should be deepened through contacts with the agency's accumulated knowledge. The number one reason, therefore, for desiring broadly representative boards is to accelerate the community organization process upon which the attainment of improved community life depends.

Proposal for an International Welfare Organization

RECOGNIZING the need for increasing understanding between nations and between peoples, the United Nations Charter pledges all member nations to promote international cooperation in solving international problems of economic, social, cultural or humanitarian nature. American social workers are convinced that international cooperation between governments in social welfare is essential if the conditions of stability and well being which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations, are to be achieved. For this reason representatives of national voluntary and public social welfare organizations have been studying and discussing the need under the provisions of the United Nations Charter for an effective intergovernmental, international social welfare agency. These discussions have resulted in general agreement on the desirability for international collaboration in advancing measures for dealing with social problems affecting family life, the care and protection of children, provision for refugees, the aged and handicapped, and other peoples with special needs. This need has been intensified because of the disrupting effect of the war on the lives of individuals.

The first meeting of representatives of national social work organizations was arranged for August 21, 1945, on the initiative of the American

Association of Social Workers and with the cooperation of the United States State Department. The following voluntary organizations were represented at this meeting:

- American Association of Social Workers
- American Public Welfare Association
- National Social Welfare Assembly
- National Conference of Social Work
- American Association of Schools of Social Work
- National Social Service Division, UOPWACIO
- American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service

In addition to officials of the State Department there were also present in an advisory capacity representatives from the following governmental agencies:

- United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration
- Social Security Board, Bureau of Public Assistance
- Children's Bureau, Department of Labor
- Women's Bureau, Department of Labor

A steering committee composed of Mr. Robert Bondy, Mr. Howard Knight, Rev. Lucian Lauer-

man and Mr. Joseph Anderson was appointed at that meeting and authorized to arrange a series of conferences for the purpose of preparing a statement outlining the problems on which international planning and action in social welfare is needed, as well as the broad general objective of an international welfare organization. These conferences were held during the fall of 1945. A national conference to which representatives of voluntary and public social welfare organizations were invited was held in New York City on December 18, 1945, under the auspices of the National Social Welfare Assembly. The findings of the study of the issues involved in establishing an international social welfare organization through intergovernmental action were presented by the steering committee and the conference agreed on a statement to be submitted to the United States State Department for official action. The conference also adopted the recommendation that a National Committee on International Social Welfare Organization be constituted under the

National Social Welfare Assembly. Members of this committee are:

Mr. Joseph P. Anderson, chairman
Mr. Robert Bondy, National Social Welfare Assembly
Dr. Beverly Boyd, Federal Council of Churches
Prof. John Chamberlin, President, Federation of Protestant Welfare Agencies
Mr. Reginald Kennedy, Labor League for Human Rights
Rev. Lucian Lauerman, American Association of Schools of Social Work
Msgr. John J. O'Grady, National Conference of Catholic Charities
Mr. John Pierce, National CIO Community Services
Mr. Morris Zelditch, Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds

The following statement, adopted by the conference, was submitted to Acting Secretary of State, Dean Acheson, on January 3, 1946:

Proposal for an International Social Welfare Organization under the Provisions of the United Nations Charter

The need for an international social welfare organization established through intergovernmental action under the provisions of the United Nations Charter is based upon the recognition,

THAT recognition of the fundamental value of human personality and the well-being of all the peoples of the world is essential to the development and maintenance of world stability and peace;

THAT in all nations, the well-being of large sections or groups in the population has been adversely affected by the existence of social problems, which vary among countries and among areas in intensity and in the application of corrective measures;

THAT such social problems have been aggravated by war and occupation to such an extent that masses of people are suffering acutely and living under conditions dangerous to international security and the welfare of the peoples of the world.

THAT action is urgently needed on social problems to mitigate the evil effects of war and occupation on the living conditions of the peoples of the world, especially children and young people,

and on future generations, and to increase progressively the well-being and economic productivity of all population groups;

THAT over a period of years, considerable progress has been made in welfare and social work in many of the United Nations in developing a body of experience, knowledge and skill in enabling individuals and families to lead personally satisfying and socially useful lives by provision of material assistance and services to persons with special needs or whose normal living has been disrupted;

THAT pooling of this experience and knowledge by all nations can contribute greatly to the progressive promotion of improved conditions of life for people throughout the world;

THAT effective accomplishment in remedying present evils interfering with both individual and collective welfare and in promoting the greater well-being of the peoples of the world can be furthered by concerted intergovernmental action, by collaboration between governmental and voluntary agencies, by encouragement of voluntary agencies and other cooperation.

PURPOSE AND FUNCTIONS OF AN INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL WELFARE ORGANIZATION

Purpose

The purpose of the international social welfare organization established by intergovernmental action shall be to promote international cooperation with respect to social welfare, such as improving conditions of family life, especially those which relate to services or other assistance and to legal measures for the protection of the family; dealing with social welfare problems involved in providing for refugees and displaced persons and resulting from diverse legal provisions relating to citizenship and nationality; providing special services for the care and protection of children and youth, including rehabilitation and training of homeless and other children suffering from the effects of the war; providing special services both for the aged and for the rehabilitation of the physically, mentally, or socially handicapped persons; prevention and treatment of delinquency and crime; suppression of prostitution and rehabilitation of prostitutes; training of personnel for social welfare; and collaboration with other international organizations on social welfare aspects of matters within their field of activity.

Functions and Powers

For the achievement of this purpose, the organization may collect, analyze, and disseminate information; initiate and conduct research and special studies; formulate programs of international cooperation in the field of social welfare; develop and publish social welfare principles, policies and standards; formulate recommendations, draft conventions and agreements with respect to matters within the scope of the organization for submission to governments; prepare for and convene conferences on particular subjects within the scope of its purpose; initiate and promote international cooperation in the training and utilization of technical personnel; at the request of governments provide for technical consultation and such other services as come within the scope of the organization; and perform such other functions as may be appropriate for carrying out the purpose of the organization.

RELATIONSHIP OF THE AGENCY TO THE UNITED NATIONS

We believe that the international social welfare agency should be established within the provisions of the United Nations Charter, and in such a manner as to best assure that the broad purposes and functions, recommended above, will be achieved. Our recommendations below on principles of organizational structure and on the Temporary Social Commission of the Economic and Social Council are made with a view to assur-

ing that the broad purposes and functions will be achieved. Continued study of the implications of an international social welfare agency will bring out the relative values of the establishment either of a Commission under the Economic and Social Council, or a specialized agency brought into relationship with the United Nations Organization through separate agreement between the agency and UNO.

PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

The basic instrument of any international social welfare organization should, on the basis of established procedures and definitions as required, provide for

- (1) a periodical conference, composed of delegates from all members of the organization and selected by governments after consultation with official and voluntary social welfare agencies of recognized standing, including religious, labor, and other organizations conducting social work.
- (2) an Executive Committee, composed of an appropriate number of persons technically qualified in the field of social welfare elected by the conference from among the members of delegations. The Executive Committee should have broad authority to direct the work of the organization under the general supervision of the conference;
- (3) a director as head of the permanent administrative staff, who shall be appointed by the Executive Committee or on the committee's nomination, or subject to the committee's approval, on the basis of technical and administrative ability in the field of social welfare;
- (4) appropriate participation by representatives of official and voluntary national and international social welfare agencies at such times and on such conditions as may be determined by the Executive Committee;
- (5) an organization so constituted as to be able to collaborate on an equal basis with other international intergovernmental and voluntary agencies in related fields, such as health and education.

TEMPORARY SOCIAL COMMISSION OF THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

We approve the recommendation of the Executive Committee of the United Nations Preparatory Commission that a Temporary Social Commission be established (1) to deal with substantive problems in the social field requiring immediate attention, (2) to assume responsibility for certain non-political League of Nations' functions, such as traffic in women and children, and child wel-

(Continued on page 38)

The Place of the Professional Educational Association in the Field of Social Work

• BY ANNA E. KING *

President, American Association of Schools of Social Work

I BSEN once said that to create is to pass judgment on oneself. The creation which is the American Association of Schools of Social Work is at a crossroads. Objectives beyond its early purpose and structure are being proposed at this, its twenty-seventh Annual Meeting. Among these objectives is a greatly expanded pattern of service to the educational institutions engaged in preparation for social work everywhere. Before the members of this Association can pledge themselves to accept such new responsibilities for the profession, they must answer for their own satisfaction and that of their public, the question, "What is the place of the professional educational association in the field of social work today?" and the corollary question, "Is it filling that place?" I propose to narrow the scope of this presidential address to a consideration of these two basic questions, and to limit our considerations particularly to our present situation and our future direction as a professional group.

I wish I could begin by drawing a map in true scale, showing the road our Association has taken in the past, putting into clear perspective what is important, what insignificant in that which is now being advocated. Instead I am in the position of the traveler in a strange country, described by Frank Sheed. This traveler gets a confused impression of the road he has traveled in its totality, but vivid impressions of individual things. When he sees a map of the whole country he has traversed at the end of his travels, it may very well be full of surprises and may give him a wholly new view. "It is only in the light of its end that any road makes sense. If you ask why it turns this way and that, the answer will always lie in a consideration of the place it is going to."¹

Therefore any of us engaged in making a chart for this Association to pursue, must make the chart in the light of the end for which the organization came into existence. This end will rule out certain possibilities, and rule in others.

* Miss King is Dean of the Fordham University School of Social Service. This article is her presidential address given at the annual meeting of the American Association of Schools of Social Work, January 25, 1946, and it will be published in the Proceedings of the Annual Meeting.

¹ F. J. Sheed, *A Map of Life*, Sheed and Ward, New York, 1939, pp. 7, 28.

Early Impetus to Association of Schools

You have heard how we were started. In 1919 a pioneer group of social work educators came together to form this Association without any idea of gaining future control over social work education and with no notion of establishing a little empire for their member schools. They came because for them, as for us, society was a natural necessity. In their optimistic minds, coverage of the country with such schools would inevitably come, but at that stage coverage was not possible. They believed that their work would be to encourage the growth of good schools and to reduce the number of unsound educational ventures. The empire visualized was of another sort. It was that of increased conviction gained from opinions and judgments held in common with people whose vision and leadership were unquestioned. Whether a school were large or small, it received from this Association an assurance that its development was guided by the best thinking the profession could produce. Out of this assurance came intensity of application to the task, and lightening of burdens through shared services.

For ten years these pioneers went through a community organization and group work process both painful and enlightening, coming out with a few things on which they could agree as vital to education for social work. This was the first basic minimum curriculum, already created and in action before they could formulate it. They agreed to apply the standards with flexibility and imagination, adding the individual extra something which each school had to contribute out of its uniqueness, and they agreed not to depart from them in any substantial way without submitting the departure to the consideration of the group. These instruments were to be accepted along with the objective to be achieved, and any other type of measurement would be considered unfair and prejudicial.

The requirements were set up in such a way that they would insure favorable conditions of learning for the student in the young profession. They implied: full time rather than part time enrollment; a duration of uninterrupted and correlated classroom and field work study; attendance at practice seminars definitely limited in size, and conducted by the discussion method; source mater-

ials drawn from practice; filed work capable of being measured by educational standards; development of a research point of view; plenty of individual counseling between faculty and students; transfer of learning from one unit of instruction to another as well as from one practice situation to another, so that the program would be a unity and not a series of compartments. The objective was the development of the total personality of the student, and the cultivation of the faculties rather than the amassing of facts.

The content which these requirements separated into component areas was a basic tested minimum which it was assumed would enable the student to practice in any state or community. The elements were not to be adhered to because of conservatism or fear of disturbance of thought, but because each one of them was vital, and could not be dispensed with without loss to the others. As the schools developed, and as the social and economic milieu changed, it was assumed there would be changes in emphases, and additions to the curriculum to keep pace with new scientific discovery, advances in practice, and changes in governmental structure, but the base would remain constant.

Recently the word "standard" seems to have fallen into strange disrepute. People lengthen it to "standardized," which carries with it an aura of rigidity. The disrepute has undoubtedly come from fear of too early crystallization. It was from threatening chaos that they rescued us; Edith Abbott, Porter Lee, Sophonisba Breckinridge, Frank Bruno, and those others. For without standards there can be no variation, no real flexibility. Abraham Flexner in 1915² had told them that their profession could never bring its numerous and diverse occupations under a purposefully organized educational discipline. They proved that it could be done.

These leaders furnished the incentive for unifying the profession and for making what it stood for known and understood. They gave the field of social work an instrument by which it could distinguish its essential from its non-essential elements. Being a salty group, they used no high-flown words about their ideals and their hopes. They just put them to work.

Minimum Curriculum Established

Our second stage was achieved during the past four years when we produced our "basic eight areas" of the minimum curriculum. Miss Day says that "Those eight were considered essential not only because each contains subject matter necessary for professional practice, but because

each serves as an integrating force within the curriculum as a whole."³ These eight basic areas have in the last few years become sufficiently familiar so that they need mere mention here: case work, group work, community organization, administration, research, medical information, psychiatric information, public welfare. The "area" approach to the problems of curriculum building has resulted in expansion, enrichment and diversity of course offerings in the various schools. The Association is immediately involved in making greater use of the contributions from the social sciences and in including preparation for the public social services. Present plans of the curriculum planning committee look towards the ultimate development of a third year of graduate professional education in which work towards the potential doctorate in social work could be undertaken, and greater technical mastery acquired in a chosen field. In particular, the needs of social planners and community organizers, would be given attention.

Today, people are telling us on all sides that this discipline should be made possible of achievement for many more people, geographically as well as numerically. They insist that the discipline should include all kinds of preliminary and partial preparation. They suggest the need for a kind of recognition for undergraduate as well as for graduate education. The process of further integration and unification seems inevitable.

Pressures on the AASSW

Anne O'Hare McCormack, writing for the New York Times on Sunday, January 13, said of the position of this country in world affairs today, something that made me think of the position of this Association in affairs of social work: "Our position is retrievable not only because the elements of power are in us, but because of the unique phenomenon that people everywhere are still ready and eager to see us exert our power to the utmost."

It is a "unique phenomenon" that the whole profession gathers here at the Annual Meeting of a small Association of forty-five professional schools. These visitors come not only because they wish to listen and hope to learn, but because our Association feels they have a right to participate in discussions affecting the future development of the profession and the status of practitioners. They come because they want to lend a hand, and to be on the spot for ready consultation when we need them, before decisions are irrevocably made.

It is in this strategic coming together around the solid core of conviction which is the professional standard of preparation, that the elements of power lie. Our fatal charm is actually that

² Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, Baltimore, 1915, pp. 586-604.

³ THE COMPASS, January 1946, p. 4.

irreducible minimum standard. It is not that everyone is willing and eager to see our Association exert its power to the utmost. It is because we are the instrument which the profession has evolved to insure progress in the direction of self responsible educational discipline. Our motivation in the public interest is shared by many other groups.

The stage at which the Association, its member schools, and the profession has arrived may be symbolized by a picture which the New York State Department of Social Welfare placed on the cover of a pamphlet describing the program of the New York State Youth Commission. The picture shows a teen-age youngster, overshadowed by a large hand on which is written "parental misconduct," "poverty," etc., being pushed up a flight of steps labelled individually "bad companions," "late hours," "truancy," etc., toward the open doors of an institution labelled "correctional." What he is saying is the title of the pamphlet, "Stop Pushin'!"

Agencies Demand More Personnel

Our Association and our member schools have often wanted to cry out to our public in the last several years, "stop pushin'" because they might force us into a socially useless position if they continued. The country, spottily serviced and badly understaffed, has pushed in its demands that schools take in more people, lower admission requirements, put professional content into the last undergraduate years, narrow the focus of courses that they might prepare for specific positions, modify or eliminate the field work requirement, and give educational credit for experience. To these demands we have not for the most part acceded.

On the other hand, the country has been unable either to produce a national program of scholarship aid beyond that of voluntary agencies and a relatively small amount of public agency educational leave, (although hopeful signs of increase in the educational leave grants is being revealed by the study of the Social Security Board). Neither has this country been able to provide the settings for the field work courses in numbers and quality which provide for taking more students into the schools. Also the agencies have been eager to get students who have completed all the course and field requirements in the school but have not necessarily secured the professional degree. Thus these young people had no mark of recognition which would distinguish their preparation from other partial kinds available because they had to leave out the completion of an essential element, the research requirement. In many cases, this "leaving out" has been shortsighted and unnecessary.

Agencies, pushed also by serious staff shortages, were forced to fill vacant positions which ordi-

narily required fully trained personnel, with untrained or partly trained people. Returning workers from the war services have not yet filled the gap. While increased enrollment in schools is encouraging, it has not been sufficient to meet employment demands and there are still schools which have not approximated full enrollment.

An illustration of the need for pooling of information about member schools and about openings available for students in these schools, is pointed up by our returning veterans. They are being interviewed in one school at the rate of fifty a week. It is important that the first school to which the veteran applies have information about available places in other schools. Otherwise, he may be shunted from one to the other. We have not as yet had this kind of pooling.

It is easy enough to say that many of our schools could and should step up their enrollment. Two years ago Mr. Bruno pointed out at our 25th Anniversary that enrollment increases mean larger classes, less individual counseling of students, less time for research, publication, and curriculum study, when it is vitally needed by the individual school. Increased enrollment under such conditions spells dilution rather than expansion.

Pressures have also been felt upon the offices of our Association. We are housed in two rooms. Our staff consists of a full time executive secretary, an office manager, some clerical assistance, and this year, for two three months' periods, an assistant executive secretary who gave field service to undergraduate preprofessional programs. The job of executive secretary has evolved beyond the capacity of any one individual to carry.

During a month's time, a volume of about 1600 letters are handled in the AASSW office. Following the recruiting drive of the Wartime Committee on Personnel, high school and college graduates, practicing social workers, service men and women, and social work organizations, wrote for materials and advice. I believe most of us are agreed that this is a service which may properly be given by some other organization.

Educational Institutions Need Consultation

During the war, no regular field visits to member schools were made. The schools have written the executive secretary, asking for many kinds of help, particularly on curriculum planning, and on finding and selecting teachers, even suggesting that the AASSW ought to set up a placement service for teachers, which responsibility we have not accepted. There has likewise been an increasing correspondence with schools wishing to set up a graduate professional curriculum as well as with undergraduate colleges. The services made possible through the Field Foundation grant,

which has been renewed, brought in requests for visits, advice, and materials from 188 institutions and organizations.⁴

Groups Abroad Ask Help

Plans of various national organizations to carry out scholarship programs involved us in different kinds of activity, including consultation, coordination and actual administration. The need in foreign countries caused social workers on all six continents to ask our Association for help in defining what should be the form and character of professional education in their parts of the world. This was one of many kinds of requests which we could not meet.

Social Workers Eager to Know About Educational Developments

To other pressures we were able to accede with no conflict. Our printed list of publications, coming out last October, begins to channel our own committee materials and reports to the people who had not known where to get them. The AASSW list of member schools is now a single list, since various professional associations have agreed on the issuance of one, with special curricula designated therein. Other kinds of data often asked for include such shifting factors in the schools' program as opening and closing dates, and have not thus far been accessible for publication. But it is this sort of marshalling and pooling of facts for which our field is crying.

The biggest gap between the teaching and practicing group was bridged with the release of the Accrediting Manual on a purchase basis to any individual or school interested in it.⁵ Previously the accrediting manual information was considered confidential. Its sale now makes it possible for everyone to understand the kinds of criteria the organization applies to its own members. Another publication, issued at the request of the American Association of Social Workers, is a guide for AASW committees on professional education and is called "The Extension of Resources for Professional Education in Social Work."⁶ It describes methods of estimating whether a school is needed and the strength of possible resources to support it.

There has been a great deal of stimulation of committee members to write for publications. These writings have joined the increasing group of papers on social work education.

⁴ The Field Foundation grant provided for services and consultation to colleges and universities interested in undergraduate programs.

⁵ Manual of Accrediting, American Association of Schools of Social Work, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, price \$1.00.

⁶ Available free of charge from the American Association of Social Workers, 130 East 22nd Street, New York 10, N. Y.

It is significant of the trends of our times that our Curriculum Planning Committee has put its ideas for a new approach to curriculum study into the current Compass, before the committee's thinking has been considered and approved by the Association of Schools. Studies and ideas do not have to be in the last stages of perfection or consent before they are shared with the profession at large, which assumes it has a right to know about such basic undertakings, and something to say about them.

We will not resolve our problems without the help of an informed and deeply concerned practicing group. There are certainly signs that we are moving toward a self-conscious and responsible membership body when the American Association of Social Workers tells our Association that it will support any sound plan our Association will offer to secure funds for increased service and study operations. We do not know whether such requests for funds will be directed toward other professional organizations, to industry, to labor, to individuals, to foundations, to our own universities and colleges, or to a combination of them. Stability of financing is desirable. We are heartened by the objective signs of interest and concern in the chapters of the American Association of Social Workers.

Other Developments in Social Work Education

Other groups besides our own have been working on problems of unification and recognition. The National Association of Schools of Social Administration has developed from an interest on the part of a group of colleges and universities to direct their fourth undergraduate and in some cases fifth graduate year to a combination of social science and social work courses, plus agency experience. This program is designed primarily to prepare graduates to take immediate positions in the public social services and is considered by NASSA as acceptable preparation for social work. About this matter there is considerable difference of opinion which is sharpening our appraisal of the educational program which our Association has come to accept as minimum preparation for social work.

Still another approach has been the one with which we are most familiar, the basic liberal arts four year program, with a social science major in the third or fourth years, with some exposure to the work of social agencies, and some background courses in social work.

With these other approaches we have an immediate and vital concern. However we have come to recognize with greater clarity than we recognized before, two things. First, there is an inherent necessity for a single accrediting agency in a professional field. Second, the working out of such problems as recognition for partial forms of

preparation for the practice of social work is beyond the scope of this organization alone to solve, and is the responsibility of the entire profession.

Proposal for a Commission on Social Work Education

The establishment of a Commission on Education is proposed. This would be a central group to which those having problems in the field of preparation for social work should come. Federal and state bureaus, national functional agencies, national professional associations, and others, might use it for reference in cases where our Association has no province, or only a shared one. The Commission would have the advantage of being free from the range of specific matters handled by the Wartime Committee on Personnel. The best possible auspices should be secured for the Commission, which might be the sponsor for the study of education for social work being proposed. The Board of the AASSW has given consideration to the desirability of a study which could eventuate in improvement of standards in both undergraduate and graduate parts of preparation for social work, possible realignment of curriculum, stable financing and increased respect for social work education. Education for medicine took a long leap forward after the publication of Abraham Flexner's study on the medical schools.

All of these projected activities represent a genuine attempt to move forward with other groups in one operation to meet the educational needs of social work.

The usefulness of our place in the field has been determined by a choice of purpose and function, to which we have adhered. The field of social work has been unified around its professional education and has had clarified what education can and cannot provide. The profession's desire for quick and effective action can only be met by an organization staffed adequately and financed in a stable manner.

Immediate Objectives for AASSW

Some of the basic needs of professional education in this country which are our deepest concern and to which we will devote ourselves are:

Securing from the field of practice new types of field work facilities as well as expanded ones; central shared services between professional asso-

ciations; clearance and coordination and avoidance of duplication of work between them; support on the part of the profession for research requirements as a part of professional education; a national scholarship policy which will enable students to stay in schools long enough to ensure their getting what they came for; adequate staff service for consultation visits to member schools, and to other educational institutions which require help in getting programs started; additional staff service and travel funds for committees; scholarships for advanced students for research and for community organization and administration specialization, and to learn the teaching discipline; a genuine attempt to work with other groups toward our common objectives.

There has been confusion in the minds of social workers about what the schools and their Association should do, because educational bodies, bearing the burden of professional education, are quite different kinds of organizations from social agencies, and have quite different responsibilities. Our job is to keep essential knowledge intact for future practitioners and to insure thoroughness in equipment of persons engaged in social work. As our knowledge of people has been enriched and as social work methods have improved, we have added to the structure of our curriculum but the base on which we build our structure tends to be constant, and we keep people from violating or aborting it. We agree that this is our particular responsibility, although in a sense every practitioner and every agency shares it.

In the immediate future, we will be involved in action on the Commission on Education and the study of professional education. I feel confident that no one in our Association is unwilling to take such means toward clearer definition of function and potential greater usefulness to this country.

In closing, I am quoting from a great writer and a great educator (Ruskin): "We will deal rightly with circumstances when, not misled by short views and not attracted by immediate advantages, offered by opportunism, we see clearly what makes for the real good of ourselves and our fellows, and seeing this, take action according to our views, and conform our conduct unflinchingly to it. It is for this that education worthy of a name adapts a man . . . to get at the root of the matter; to think it out; to get quit of passion and desire in the process of thinking; or to fear no face of man in plainly asserting the ascertained results."

Students in Schools of Social Work*

November 1, 1945 and Academic Year, 1944-1945

THE report on registration in the accredited schools of social work has recently been released by Miss Leona Massoth, Executive Secretary of the American Association of Schools of Social Work, and has been received with widespread interest. This statistical report is based on data obtained from the 46 members of the AASSW (45 schools and one branch) regarding students registered on November 1, 1945 and for the academic year 1944-45.

The 46 member institutions include 40 schools, 4 departments, and 2 divisions of social work. Each of the members is an integral part of, or is affiliated with, a university or college. The recently announced affiliation of the Montreal School of Social Work with McGill University brought the last of the private schools of social work within the structure of a university or college. Of the 46 schools, 15 are affiliated with state or territorial universities or colleges, two with those supported by municipal funds, one with a university supported by federal funds, and 25 with privately endowed colleges or universities (8 of which are sectarian). In addition there are three schools located in Canada. Thirty-eight of the member schools offer a two-year program, leading to a professional Master's degree, while eight of the schools offer the first year of the two-year program, leading to a professional certificate.

The total of all students enrolled in schools of social work on November 1, 1945 reached the highest peak to date, 7972 as compared to the total of 7537 on November 1, 1944. The number of students specializing in social work enrolled at the schools in the professional curriculum (i.e., excluding those in extension courses and those from other departments in the colleges or universities taking courses in the schools), increased from 4715 on November 1, 1944 to 5011 on November 1, 1945 and this increase was almost entirely in the number of full-time students, which was 2416 last year and 2791 this year. The number of part time students specializing in social work and enrolled at the schools decreased from 2299 to 2220. There was also a decrease in the number of students enrolled in the extension courses, but the number enrolled in the preprofessional courses increased considerably.

It is interesting to note that the number of men

* This report is available through the American Association of Schools of Social Work, 1313 East 60 Street, Chicago 37. Price 50 cents.

students enrolled in the schools increased from 627 in 1944 to 746 in 1945. This increase suggests a return to the trend, evident before the war, toward increased enrollment of men which, judging from the number of applications now being received by the schools from ex-servicemen, will be even greater next semester. Many of the schools received applications from men after V-J Day and V-E Day, but were unable to accept any for the fall semester because their enrollments for that semester were already closed. It has also been noted in the national office of AASSW that more and more servicemen and ex-servicemen are seeking information concerning the field of social work and education for social work. Of the 746 men enrolled in the schools on November 1, 1945, 125 were ex-servicemen.

As shown in Table 1, there were 20 schools with more than 50 students registered for full-time work in the professional curriculum on November 1, 1945 and 26 schools with less than 50. The ten schools with the largest enrollment of full time students in the professional curriculum on November 1, 1945 are listed in Table 2 and the

TABLE 1

SCHOOLS WITH SPECIFIED NUMBER OF FULL-TIME STUDENTS SPECIALIZING IN SOCIAL WORK ENROLLED IN THE PROFESSIONAL CURRICULUM ON NOVEMBER 1, 1945

<i>Number of Students</i>	<i>Number of Schools</i>
200 or over.....	2
More than 99, less than 200	6
More than 49, less than 100	12
More than 25, less than 50	10
25 or less.....	16

TABLE 2

THE TEN SCHOOLS WITH THE LARGEST ENROLLMENT OF FULL-TIME STUDENTS ON NOVEMBER 1, 1945

<i>School</i>	<i>Students</i>
New York School of Social Work.....	359
University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration.....	253
Western Reserve University School of Applied Social Sciences.....	140
Atlanta University School of Social Work	132
Pennsylvania School of Social Work....	131
Smith College School for Social Work..	118
Fordham University School of Social Service	104
University of Pittsburgh School of Applied Social Sciences.....	101
Tulane University School of Social Work..	93
University of California School of Social Welfare	88

ten with the largest total enrollment (i.e., both full and part time students) are given in Table 3.

TABLE 3

THE TEN SCHOOLS WITH THE LARGEST ENROLLMENT OF STUDENTS, I.E., BOTH FULL AND PART TIME ON NOVEMBER 1, 1945

<i>School</i>	<i>Students</i>
New York School of Social Work.....	884
University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration.....	366
Western Reserve University School of Applied Social Sciences.....	220
Fordham University School of Social Service	201
Boston University School of Social Work..	189
University of Southern California Graduate School of Social Work.....	172
Loyola University School of Social Work	151
Tulane University School of Social Work	150
Atlanta University School of Social Work	149
University of Michigan Institute of Social Work.	145

A comparison of the figures for the academic year 1943-44 and the academic year 1944-45 shows a decided upward trend in the enrollment of students. The total number of students enrolled in 1943-44 was 10,921 and in 1944-45 it was 13,387. The 1943-44 figures for students specializing in social work enrolled at the schools are: total, 7008; full time, 3212; part time, 3796. The 1944-45 figures are: total, 7560; full time, 3520; part time, 4040. The number of students enrolled in extension courses decreased in 1944-45 (from 1831 to 1305) but there were 2135 students enrolled in special courses (i.e., courses such as those organized for employed social workers who are not particularly seeking graduate credit for the work) in 1944-45. The number of pre-professional students increased considerably, as it did in the November 1 figures (835 in 1943-44 and 1491 in 1944-45).

During the academic year 1944-45, a total of 1120 degrees, diplomas or certificates were awarded to students in schools of social work. Of this total, 910 were professional degrees or diplomas awarded upon the completion of the two-year program; 95 were certificates awarded upon the completion of the first year of the two-year program, in a two-year school; 110 were awarded by one-year schools for the completion of the one-year program; and 5 were Ph.D degrees. An attempt was made this year to determine the fields of specialization in which the professional degrees were awarded. Information from 32 of the 38 two-year schools which offer professional degrees indicated that most of the students completed their work in the following fields of specialization:

	<i>Students</i>
Child Welfare.....	138
Psychiatric Social Work.....	115
Family Welfare.....	100
Medical Social Work.....	99
Social Case Work (general).....	60

Less than 25 students specialized in each of the other fields, such as community organization, public welfare administration, group work, probation and parole. The specialization was determined, in most cases, by the field in which the student took his field work.

It is interesting to note that during the academic year 1944-45, 1431 students were receiving scholarship assistance and of this total, 872 were receiving scholarships from public or private welfare agencies. These welfare agencies awarded 88 "work-study fellowships", i.e., those which are awarded to a student who either is or is not employed on the professional staff of the agency and which carry a commitment that the student will give time to the agency during the period of the fellowship beyond that for which field work credit is granted by the school; 387 "educational leave fellowships" awarded to a member of the professional staff of the agency (exclusive of work-study fellowships); and 499 "recruiting fellowships," awarded to a student who is not and has not been employed on the professional staff of the agency (exclusive of work-study fellowships). During the academic year 1943-44, a total of 1506 scholarships were awarded and of these 806 were from public and private welfare agencies.

Several new tables were added to the report this year to provide additional information which it was believed would be of interest. Data was gathered concerning the ex-servicemen and women registered in the schools on November 1, 1945; the number, how many had had previous training in the field, how many were new to the field, et cetera. The data for new students was similarly broken down in order to determine how many seemed to be transferring from one school to another. The figures on the part time students were broken down into those who had been enrolled previously for a full time program as degree (diploma, certificate) candidates and those who had never been so enrolled. This information gives a more realistic picture of the part time enrollment in the schools, since a number of the students are not actually part time, but are merely completing their work toward the degree.

Two other new tables which were added were those concerning the permanent home residences of the full time students enrolled during the academic year 1944-45. It was discovered that some schools draw their students from a wide geographical area while others seem to depend mostly on local sources. (See Table 4.)

TABLE 4

THE TEN SCHOOLS DRAWING FULL TIME STUDENTS FROM THE GREATEST NUMBER OF STATES DURING THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1944-45

<i>School</i>	<i>No. of States (inc. D.C.) Represented by the Students</i>
University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration.....	45
New York School of Social Work.....	44
Atlanta University School of Social Work..	26
Smith College School for Social Work..	26
Western Reserve University School of Applied Social Sciences.....	24
National Catholic School of Social Service	22
University of Southern California Graduate School of Social Work.....	21
Tulane University School of Social Work	21
St. Louis University School of Social Service	19
Pennsylvania School of Social Work....	17

Similarly, some states supply many more students than do others. (See Table 5.)

A total of 41 students from U. S. possessions or territories enrolled in the schools during 1944-45 (22 of these students were from Hawaii and were enrolled, for the most part, in the University of Hawaii School of Social Work). In addition there were 28 students from foreign countries; 14 from Central and South American countries, 5 from China, and 1 or 2 from several other countries throughout the world.

An analysis of the reports since 1932 (Table 6) shows that the schools are continuing, as they have

TABLE 5

THE TEN STATES (OR COUNTRIES) SUPPLYING THE MOST FULL TIME STANDARDS FOR SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK DURING THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1944-45

<i>States or Countries</i>	<i>No. of Students Enrolled in the Schools</i>
New York.....	630
California	249
Illinois	183
Massachusetts	180
Pennsylvania	152
Ohio	147
Canada	143
Michigan	119
Missouri	110
Minnesota	88

in the last few years, to increase the number of graduate students enrolled full time and to decrease the number enrolled part time. In fact, the number of full time graduate students showed an increase on November 1, 1945 over the figures for November 1, 1944, while the total enrollment of graduate students decreased slightly. The number of men was greater on November 1, 1945 than it has been since 1941. It will be interesting to see how great the increase is in 1946, when the greatest number of returned veterans is expected to enroll in schools throughout the country.

Table 7 indicates that the total number of degrees, certificates and diplomas awarded in 1944-45 continued the decrease evident in 1943-44. However, the total number of higher degrees granted has actually increased; the decrease is almost entirely in the number of certificates and diplomas awarded.

TABLE 6

FULL TIME AND PART TIME GRADUATE STUDENTS IN SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK, NOVEMBER 1, 1932-45

<i>November 1 (Year)</i>	<i>Total Number of Graduate Students</i>	<i>Number of Full-Time Graduate Students</i>			<i>Number of Part Time Graduate Students</i>
		<i>Total</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	
1945	4321	2383	237	2146	1938
1944	4424	2334	140	2194	2090
1943	4009	2028	114	1914	1981
1942	3781	2154	220	1934	1627
1941	4478	2464	485	1979	2014
1940	4899	2622	650	1972	2277
1939	4605	2417	581	1836	2188
1938	4418	2147	491	1656	2271
1937	4070 *	1985	381	1604	2085 *
1936	4125	1864	359 *	1501 *	2261
1935	3970	1797	362	1435	2173
1934	3910	1940	402	1538	1970
1933	1981	1015	156	859	966
1932	1569	936	153	783	633

* Incomplete because of "not reported" items.

TABLE 7
STUDENTS GRANTED HIGHER DEGREES IN SOCIAL WORK, 1932-44

Year	Grand Total	Higher Degrees			Diplomas or Certificates		
		Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1944-45	1120	915	48	867	205	15	190
1943-44	1213	912	74	838	301	40	261
1942-43	1249	880	126	754	369	44	325
1941-42	1200	905	230	675	295	51	244
1940-41	1239	910	230	680	329	81	248
1939-40	1128	651	145 *	475 *	477 †	95	382
1938-39	1159	612	156	456	547	100	447
1937-38	998	598	149	449	400	71	329
1936-37	828	445	114	331	383	65	318
1935-36	763	354	70	284	409	56	353
1934-35	528	239	33	206	289	38 *	215 *
1933-34	420	150	22	128	270	31	239
1932-33	475	189	30	159	286	34	252

* Incomplete because of "not reported" items.

† Three certificate students also received the M.A.

Standards of Performance for Social Work

BY THOMASINE HENDRICKS*

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THERE is now more opportunity than during the war period to emphasize the development of standards of performance for social work positions. Moreover, the membership of the Association is making a special effort to define and clarify personnel standards. Dorothy Lally described the experience of public welfare agencies in developing standards of performance in an article "The Interrelationships of Merit Systems and the Quality of Public Welfare Personnel" which appeared in the 1942 Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work. Because of the timeliness of the subject I have agreed to redirect attention to this experience in developing standards of performance for social work positions in public assistance.

Substantial progress has been made in clarifying duties for the social work positions in public assistance and in describing the competence expected in performance of these duties. This progress and the results of agency experience in this area merit a more systematic analysis and evaluation than I have been in a position to make. Also, such an analysis would be particularly difficult because the progress over the country has been uneven and is affected by particular circumstances in the agencies. In many instances an excellent beginning has been interrupted by the

stresses of the war period which did not permit the refined work and the experimental approach required for solution of some of the difficulties. In the past several years the Bureau of Public Assistance has not been able, because of staff shortages and other more pressing work, to continue on a consistent basis the emphasis begun earlier in assisting the states in this difficult area through materials and consultation from Technical Training Service.

It is possible now, however, to indicate some of the results of our beginning experience and to point out the problems which need early attention. In the many discussions of the supervisory process, including staff evaluations with groups in a number of different agencies, and in the more detailed exploration of performance standards, certain problems and a few partial answers have arisen with sufficient frequency to afford some basis for discussion. Consultation with state agencies regarding this whole area and written statements of agency standards which we have had the opportunity to see, often in their tentative stages and later in more refined form, bear witness to the fact that specific performance standards for positions in social work agencies can now be established. Also indicated are the many values resulting from this effort at each stage in development of standards as well as those problems in establishing criteria and in evaluation which are commonly found in the whole field of social work.

* The opinions expressed in this article are those of the writer, and do not necessarily represent the views of the Social Security Board.

Definition of Terms

Some explanation of the ways the term "standards of performance" are used here may be indicated. Also it may be well to recall the relation of standards of performance to evaluation. We have usually spoken of standards of performance in reference to criteria used for measuring the competence of individual social workers. These criteria have been considered essential in the supervisory process as the basis for identifying the strengths and weaknesses in performance, and assisting the worker in areas where he needs help. Criteria have also been considered essential as the basis for arriving at a decision regarding the level of competence actually achieved by the worker. This process of analysis and evaluation is based on a review of various aspects of performance and should be guided by clearly understood standards. Such a procedure takes place at regular intervals and results of the evaluation are systematically recorded. In social work agencies this procedure has usually been called a periodic evaluation. The formal evaluation plan in agencies operating under the merit system has been called a "service rating."

We have emphasized also that evaluation is a continuous process in a social worker's effort to improve his competence, and in the supervisor's efforts to help him do so. The periodic evaluation has been considered, then, a summation of supervisory observations and analysis of work and of discussions between the worker and supervisor over a period of time with respect to given aspects of performance.

Obviously a clear understanding of job duties and performance standards are only beginning steps in establishing a formal evaluation plan. Decisions must be made regarding the specific form and content of the agency rating plan. Decisions must also be made regarding the specific method to be adopted in using the standards of performance in the evaluation process. Some agencies have based the service rating form on the performance standards. Others have emphasized the use of the performance standards as goals in supervision, and as general guides in evaluation. Whatever their specific use, performance standards should facilitate the development of a rating plan which emphasizes evaluation of those aspects of performance of most significance in maintaining a high quality of service to individuals. Such standards moreover should contribute to development of a more uniform interpretation among those evaluating performance of the factors on which they are basing decisions.

Development of service rating plans for large jurisdictions operating under the merit system is a complicated process. Special attention in these circumstances must be paid to ways of securing comparable data as the basis for personnel actions

affecting large groups of employees. Operating personnel in these agencies have therefore required considerable technical assistance from persons with special competence in the field of tests and measurements in developing satisfactory service rating plans. Although it is admittedly arbitrary to discuss any aspect of the inter-related processes involved in establishing standards of performance and a formal evaluation plan, without reference to the other, this statement is confined largely to questions relating to establishing standards of performance.

Standards of performance have frequently been implied rather than directly stated and they have sometimes been loosely worded and general. Topics in evaluation outlines have often relied upon an assumed understanding of a common body of professional knowledge and skill which experience has shown, and quite naturally so, was not uniformly interpreted when applied to performance of various kinds of social service functions. In the recent emphasis on formulating specific standards of performance, agencies have attempted to systematically analyze, and describe qualitatively, the expected performance in all significant phases of the job duties in particular positions or classes of positions; for example, case worker, case supervisor, executive, field representative. In describing performance, one also takes into account factors relating to quality of work accomplishment where such factors are relevant; for example, factors relating to case load coverage.

Standards Proposed for Staff Discussion

Because of the concern of the state agencies administering public assistance, to develop standards of performance as the basis for improving supervision and for establishing a formal evaluation plan, the Bureau of Public Assistance with consultation from the Board's State Technical Advisory Service prepared a draft for discussion purposes, "Development and Use of Standards of Performance."¹ Several agencies had already begun work in this area and their experience was helpful in preparing the draft. A narrative statement described the methods for developing and using standards of performance. Illustrative standards of performance for the visitor's job were developed to stimulate consideration of performance standards in the agencies. The process of analyzing job duties through group participation was suggested as well as the need

¹ This statement, dated August 1941, is available on request from Technical Training Service, Bureau of Public Assistance, Social Security Board, Washington, D. C. The present discussion will not have full meaning without reference to the original statement on the subject which was proposed for use of the public assistance agencies. This original statement is referred to throughout this paper as the "draft" of Bureau materials.

for the assignment of responsible competent personnel to keep the project moving along as staff participation brings new ideas which may be incorporated in materials on standards of performance.

The importance was stressed of clear and up to date statements of job duties as the basis for staff discussion of the factors believed significant in describing the quality of performance. Experience in developing written standards has repeatedly substantiated the importance of this part of the process. In many instances a reexamination of job duties has been of help to the agencies in understanding the need for re-interpretation and restatement of current agency objectives and philosophy.

The illustrative description of the visitor's position in the draft materials prepared by the Bureau was broken down into six major aspects: (1) study of eligibility (2) analysis of case situation and formulation of plan (3) effecting case plans and meeting continuing needs (4) presentation of social data (5) organization (6) use of supervision and consultation services. Obviously, any classification of this kind is to some degree artificial. This breakdown was focused rather specifically on detailed processes in the job of administering public assistance. This seemed important in a draft to be used for discussion purposes in order to secure direct consideration of a number of specific phases of performance. In developing their own standards, the agencies have varied in the ways they have organized the material. Moreover agencies have included in their standards, functions other than public assistance, where the visitor's job responsibility covered these.

In presenting the illustrative standards, the duties of the position were listed and a description showing how well or with what degree of skill the particular phase of each job duty was carried out. For example, in the section on "study of eligibility" the following job duty was listed: "to interpret agency function and policies during the investigation process." The description of this process of individualized interpretation of agency to the client reads, "a worker assumes responsibility for helping client understand agency policies and available services. He relates such interpretation to the client's request and individual circumstances."

Staff Participation in Developing Standards

The draft statement was sent to the regional staff of the Bureau and to the state public assistance agencies, requesting their comments on the methods proposed for developing standards of performance. These reviewers were also asked to express judgment on a 10-point scale regarding the relative importance of each of the 50 elements

described in the job of the visitor. The Bureau of Public Assistance had the benefit of written comments from 14 state agencies and from all of the Bureau's regional representatives. Fifteen additional state agencies have contributed through discussion with consultants from Technical Training Service in periods of consultation. These comments have been helpful in consulting with agencies and in preparing suggestions at the request of agencies regarding their own tentative standards. The state agencies expressed considerable interest in the methods suggested for development of standards of performance and indicated that they believed the proposed approach was sound.

The actual number of persons in each state who participated in the review of materials was not given in every instance. We do know, however, that we have had the benefit of thinking of persons in the following state agency positions: Chairman, Public Welfare Commission, Director of Public Assistance, Assistant State Director, Assistant Director of Public Assistance, Director of Field Staff, State Case Work Supervisor, Director of Child Welfare, Head, Bureau of Procedures and System, Personnel Officers, Field Representatives (from 10 states), Consultant on Standards of Assistance, Director, Division of Research and Statistics, County Staff Directors and workers.

State agency personnel made a large number of helpful suggestions both on the analysis of the visitor's job which was basic to the formulation of the standards and on the terminology used in the descriptive statements of performance. On the whole, participating agencies seemed to favor standards based on a smaller number of job elements. The illustrative standards included 50 performance standards. Comments also indicated that too fine a breakdown had been made in describing various phases of performance. As one reviewer indicated, the agency staff at this particular stage of the program needed to use the "big muscles" rather than the small ones. In their own statements of standards, it has been observed that the state agencies have been able to remove some of the duplications and detailed refinements without sacrificing materially any major areas in description of the job. There were values of course in this fine breakdown from the standpoint of getting reaction to as many elements in performance as possible.

Weighting of Job Elements

There was a problem in the interpretation of the instructions to the reviewers for rating the relative importance of job elements in the total duties in the position of visitor. There is therefore no valid basis for a tabulation on the relative importance of the job elements. This was regrettable since it had been hoped that suggestions would be secured on weighting which would be

helpful in the preparation of suggested service rating scales. However, the responses from the agencies in rating the elements and in the written comments as well as subsequent discussions of standards materials developed by the agencies have indicated agreement on the elements thought essential in the job of visitor. It has been interesting to note how frequently the following elements have appeared in standards of performance prepared by the state agencies: use of client participation in the process of determining eligibility; maintaining objectivity in the process of determining eligibility; individualizing interpretation of agency functions and policy to the clients; relating appropriate agency policies and procedures to the individual situation; full exploration of family circumstances in developing the assistance plan; interpretation and use of other services to meet needs for services outside the agency; conserving and developing client's strength; informing supervisor of effect of policy and procedure on client's situation. There are of course others, but these are mentioned because they appear most frequently.

Standards on Relationship

Several persons suggested that more material on "relationships" be incorporated in the standards. No special section on relationships per se had been developed in the original standards because it seemed desirable at that time to clarify the way in which skill in relationship and socially constructive attitudes toward people were used in the various processes of the worker's job. Emphasis on relationship and attitude does appear in various elements described. For example, we would consider this factor in a standard which reads, "in the process of determining eligibility the worker accepts attitudes, customs, behavior patterns which differ from his own, is unbiased in his approach to an exploration of the client situation, and maintains objectivity in securing facts necessary to the determination of eligibility." Likewise, skill in relationships is essential in a standard which reads, "worker evaluates client's capacity to take responsibility and in accordance with this stimulates his participation in the eligibility process." The whole process of individualizing the interpretation of agency policy to the client in ways that are understandable to him and that are responsive to his special needs, calls for skill in relationships and constructive attitudes toward people.

In discussion with agencies on this point there were differences of opinion regarding the desirability of organizing those aspects of performance relating to skill in relationships under a separate, identifiable major section in the standards. This difference of opinion was more related however to

the stage of the visitors' development than to difference of opinion regarding the importance of this aspect of a worker's competence in a program which so intimately touches the lives of people. Supervisors and agency personnel responsible for training had recognized some difficulties in a focus on "relationships as such" because of a tendency on the part of the less well prepared worker to see his relationship as either a process or an end in itself, and to become confused regarding the ways in which he might be helpful to the individual within the scope of his competence and agency function. Several agencies, following a breakdown different from the Bureau's draft materials, included sections specifically focused on both staff and client relationships. The question of staff relationship was dealt with in the Bureau's draft materials in connection with the effective use of supervision.

The establishment of performance standards in the area of skill in relationships is the most difficult part of the task and is one to which agencies should give their early attention. They should use their experience in the application of the current standards of performance and their knowledge of the present level of staff competence to guide them in reconsidering criteria for measuring skill in relationships.

In the comments on the Bureau's draft materials, question was also raised regarding the desirability of a separate section on the development of community resources and helping people to make use of them. Factors in this area were also developed through various aspects of the illustrative standards developed by the Bureau. Again, however, some of the reviewers thought this aspect and the related one of public relations should be given more prominent attention. Many of the agencies in developing their own standards have included a separate breakdown in this area. Recent statements of standards coming in from the agencies almost uniformly emphasize the development and use of community resources.

Interesting discussions have arisen around the question of whether the draft standard had been sufficiently geared to the rural agency. Are there differences in the rural job which should be taken into account in the standards? Although exploration of this point indicated that the major elements of performance and the basic standards established were the same for both rural and urban visitors, certain differences in job demands were helpfully noted. For example, there was usually agreement that the rural worker needed to develop skill in referral to, and use of different kinds of resources, sometimes of an informal nature and frequently calling for more ingenuity and initiative than use of urban social resources.

Dynamics of Staff Participation in Developing Standards

The values for agency staff in discussing some of these aspects of performance and clarifying points which have been troublesome may be illustrated by another example. A group of supervisors in the process of developing standards of performance brought up the state's relative's responsibility requirement. Agency policies on this point were not as liberal as the staff would have liked. In discussing the skill in performance required in planning with the applicant in relation to this requirement, the supervisors realized that in their understandable concern about the effect of the policy upon the individual, they had evaded the questions of staff regarding application of the policy. The staff had then missed the help they needed in handling their interviews in the most helpful way for the applicant and also had been less able to bring concrete evidence to those responsible for policy formulation regarding effects of the relative's responsibility policy on individuals whose circumstances and response to this requirement they understood.

Staff participation in this whole process has been emphasized for several reasons. Recognizing that the values of standards of performance depend so largely upon their acceptance and understanding by all staff and realizing the tendency to use such statements as a set of rules unless they become fully integrated in the staff member's thinking, agencies have attempted to draw the staff into the formulation of the standards at as early a point as possible. Some of the values, then, resulting from discussion of standards become effective at once and are reflected in improved performance by staff long before the actual standards are completed.

Experience has shown a definite relation between the amount of well-focused staff participation and the ability of the staff group to use constructively the standards once they are established. An illustration was afforded by a group of field reports from 13 supervisors in a middle western state. In reading these reports, which covered a long period of time, the federal training consultant noted a marked change in the tone of the reporting and the content at a certain point. Field representatives were apparently raising questions of the county director in natural, appropriate ways in relation to case material. How were the workers interpreting the agency's action to the client? What had they observed about client's response? What resources in the community might be used to meet those needs of the client which could not be met through agency resources? The field representatives' individualization of the causes of the worker's difficulties in handling case situations was definitely related to factors in the different county situations, as were their plans with directors for local staff dis-

cussions. Inquiry on what had happened to bring this change in the reports revealed that the group during that period had worked together on standards of performance for the visitor's position and state personnel thought this had been a major factor in the change.

There is another important reason for staff participation. These criteria can become stilted, artificial and unrealistic unless such work keeps closely in touch with the persons nearest to the realities and the "life" of the job. With skilled leadership to guide their thinking in applying sound principles and concepts, those familiar with day-by-day work are likely to contribute far more meaningful descriptions of performance than will result from the most elaborate efforts of those with a touch of the ivory tower.

At What Level Should Standards Be Set?

The most serious problem with which agencies have grappled has been that related to determining the level to which the standard of performance should be directed. Agencies agree that the standards of performance should be realistic. The problem appears to be one of determining exactly what is realistic so that staff ability is neither under-estimated or over-estimated. There is no easy answer to this problem. It has been possible to identify errors in estimating staff ability in both directions in a given statement of standards. This is to be expected and can be taken care of over a period of time if a consistent plan is adopted for analyzing experience in the use of standards. Agencies have usually described the degree of competence which might be expected from their ablest employees. Some agencies have tended however to describe acceptable performance believed obtainable by the majority of the staff. Through the process of staff participation those responsible for the development of standards are helped to estimate the degree of competence that may be expected. In one agency the narrative evaluation reports prepared by the supervisors were systematically analyzed to find the factors of performance which the supervisors had described in ways that indicated some agreement regarding the quality of performance they thought essential. After analyzing some of these comments in the narrative reports of local supervisors, field representatives were able to see more clearly both the abilities and limitations of staff. The preliminary drafting of standards was facilitated greatly by this process.

With the promise of more normal staff resources in the future we can look forward to strengthening every aspect of the personnel program in social work agencies. In this area of establishing more adequate criteria by which to measure social work competence we should be able to solve some of the more intricate problems that have arisen in the past few years.

An Approach Toward Objectivity in Evaluating Social Work Performance

BY MARTHA STRONG SMITH *

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EVALUATION of employee performance is one of those important aspects of employment practices with which social workers have been actively concerned. Recent literature in this field evidences an increase in the formalization of concepts which have long been in the mind of all conscientious social workers. They have always sought to weigh the duties of each position, and have, again, always attempted to maintain standards, so that it seems safe to say that the vast majority of workers who have been evaluated, whether formally or not, have felt that an honest job has been done. But as has been said, "What we need is not only honesty but clarity."

In this paper, we shall look toward clarification of some, but by no means all, of the problems involved in evaluation. To this end, some of the methods which can be used to increase the objectivity of raters' responses and of the final results will be considered; and one type of scale, the so-called graphic scale, which seems to offer certain values, will be described. A few references are appended for readers who wish to refresh themselves on social work efforts in this direction or to explore further this difficult area of measurement of behavioral characteristics, the technical problems of which are touched upon here only cursorily.

Evaluation or Service Rating

Judgments of the quality and quantity of the performance of workers have variously been termed evaluations, service ratings, and efficiency ratings. Some writers profess to find that the connotation of one or another of these terms fails to encompass certain implications of the others. These differences, if real, appear overemphasized. Social workers have perhaps preferred "evaluation" with its stress on inquiry, analysis, and appraisal, and have tended to use a freely developed, narrative evaluation directed primarily toward staff development. Other groups have

accented the necessity for ordering employees in terms of the degree of quality and quantity of service rendered and have used the term "service rating." Industrial concerns, looking toward improvement of total operation, have frequently adopted the term "efficiency rating." Whichever term is used seems unimportant as long as none of the basic objectives in the development and use of ratings is lost sight of by ascribing undue significance to a single desideratum.

What Is a Rating Plan and to What End?

A service rating plan is normally considered to be a means by which factual evidence and supervisory judgments of employee performance are recorded and evaluated at regular stated intervals through systematic analysis and synthesis.

The process of evaluation of performance, of course, occurs in all supervisory relationships with workers; but the preparation of a service rating is a consciously formalized analysis and summary. The basic purposes in establishing a formal evaluation plan are to have recorded judgments which can be compared and which will then serve to improve employee performance, to improve supervision, and to afford one basis for personnel actions. The ultimate objective of such a plan coincides exactly with the ultimate objective of every social agency; namely, the provision of adequate service in accordance with the purposes and functions of the agency.

In considering the methods and use of a rating plan, it is highly important that no one of these purposes be over-weighted to the detriment of another. Agencies small in size of staff and with extremely wide administrative latitude may handle personnel actions such as promotions, salary increases, and dismissals in a relatively informal manner, and, therefore, may have tended to emphasize the use of evaluation in staff development. Certain large public agencies have sometimes looked upon regulations with regard to rating—regulations which have been sharpened by legislative mandate establishing civil service jurisdic-

* The opinions expressed in this article are those of the writer, and do not necessarily represent the views of the Social Security Board.

tions—as limiting requirements, useful chiefly as protective administrative devices.

Although a fully satisfactory plan for evaluating employee performance has yet to be devised, even a poor plan may yield useful results under strong administration. Contrariwise, even the most refined techniques for securing reliable and valid judgments will be of little avail if imaginative and intelligent leadership is lacking. Many a good system has foundered on the rocks of faulty training of raters, perhaps the most prevalent and inexcusable flaw in weak service rating programs. To be sure, the process is time-consuming. Yet the principles are simple. Because as social workers we are professionally concerned with what happens to human beings and have developed to a high degree our techniques of supervision, we should recognize more than some other groups the precision required in making accurate discriminations.

From this point on, we shall consider those essentials for which unquestionably objective measures are not currently obtainable. Subjective reports, even when developed by relatively objective aids, should not be used when more objective data are available. When significant production figures can be obtained, as for certain clerical tasks, the aspects of performance covered by them would be omitted from a rating scale. This is not to say that these data should not be taken into account in the over-all evaluation.

Supervisory Judgment in Ratings

We have said that a rating plan is a way of securing supervisory judgments of employee performance.

Limiting our consideration to supervisory judgment is not intended to deny the value of self-ratings, colleague ratings, and subordinate-superior ratings. Whether or not these should be included in the official record may be open to question. For obvious reasons, organizations have tended to place primary responsibility for ratings at the supervisory level closest to the individual to be rated. It may be wise, for the time being at least, to consider the results of the foregoing additional types of ratings, when used, as evidence to be evaluated by the supervisor in preparing the official rating.

Supervisory judgment at its best contains a large element of subjectivity. Let us not be deluded into believing that judgments are objective or rationalize their subjectivity as necessarily desirable. Nonetheless, as in the practice of all arts, the reasonableness and accuracy of judgments may be increased through a methodology close to the scientific or they may fall into the worthless or actually damaging category if produced in some mystic or ill-defined way.

For method, then, we move toward a scientific, analytical approach. As in any other research we shall be required to define each area, to secure methodically as much data as possible, to analyze each segment of data—neither adding to nor detracting from the evidence found. Finally, after synthesis, we shall be able to say impartially and confidently, "This is my best judgment."

The desirability of employee participation at many points has already been stressed by social workers. Obviously, there should be participation of the worker in interpreting his work to his supervisor, in developing and understanding the rating plan, and in the renewed incentives to improve performance which adequate use of the rating should bring. There is danger, however, lest participation at each step in the rating process obscure the supervisory judgment. It may also disturb what should be wholesome self-evaluation and the development of the worker, a continuous process in which the supervisor's rating serves as a focal but not the sole point of reference. Interviews immediately before or during the actual rating process may confound confusion. Awareness of the general tendencies of individuals in rating themselves and of motivations lessen the dangers.

The review functions sometimes exercised by the next higher line official may, unless adequate controls have been established, likewise disturb the appropriateness of the rating. Properly used, such additional checks may increase the comparability of ratings.

What Is Rated?

Any evaluation of workers should be made in direct relation to their performance on the particular job they are doing during the period covered by the rating. On this point much confusion exists both in nonsocial work and in social work literature, although the trend is toward this point of view. We are fully aware that the possession of a trait, even if it can be proved to exist, does not necessarily mean that the trait will be uniformly evidenced in behavior. In addition to certain historical emphases in social work, our belief that service to clients can be adequate only as our workers attain disciplined skill in dealing with themselves as well as with their clients—a justifiable assumption certainly—may have led us somewhat astray into believing that the total personality of an individual worker can or should be rated as an entity.

Without exploring all the ramifications into which our philosophy or philosophies regarding personality and "the self" lead us, at least in our present state of mild knowledge of personality, let us play safe and deal in a formal evaluation program only with those aspects of personality which

are observed in direct relation to job performance. When we have learned to appraise personality with more assurance than we now can, then will be time enough to determine the pertinence of such an evaluation to employment situations.

Fundamentals for Scale Construction

Rating scales are the product of psychologists in the field of tests and measurement who have much to offer the professions on their problems of measurement. In fact, no profession can afford not to call upon their knowledge. The social worker who believes he can grasp quickly complex measurement problems which challenge the best psychologist places himself in a wholly untenable position. Similarly, if a psychologist in his concern with techniques neglects content, he is likely to limit the values he seeks to attain.

The specialist in mental measurement finds the symbolism of mathematics pleasant and useful, whereas social workers generally seem to prefer the looser symbolism of language. It behooves us neither to be gullible nor to resist objectivity, but rather to appraise the psychological principles underlying measurement of individual or group differences and, when we are competent to do so, to appraise the statistical devices utilized.

If a rating scale is to measure performance of individuals on particular jobs, job analysis data must be available prior to construction of the scale. The more specifically the duties are described, the easier the task of construction. Similarly, carefully prepared written standards of performance directly related to each duty are very helpful. Continuing emphasis on position classification and description and on written standards for numbers of purposes leads to the hope that these basic tools will be available in all agencies ere long.

The Graphic Scale as a Tool

The graphic scale lends itself to a number of the purposes so far considered. The total scale or schedule consists of a series of elements significant to the purpose for which a rating is desired. Each element is placed along a straight line or continuum to which values running from maximum to minimum may be assigned. Guideposts are provided at points along the continuum to assist the rater in arriving at a judgment. In its simplest form, the element is expressed in a single word, such as industriousness, and the guideposts are conventional adjectives, such as unsatisfactory, good, and excellent.

In the hope that enrichment of content accompanied by adherence to measurement principles will yield better results, this basic technique has been adapted, in this instance, to a hypothetical case work position.

The Over-All Scale or Schedule

To fit the objectives mentioned earlier, the over-all instrument should cover the significant areas of performance. No ready answer to the problem of the optimal number of elements to be included exists. The series of elements should be long enough, however, to encompass important aspects of performance, but not so long that the rater becomes too fatigued to concentrate his attention afresh on each new aspect of performance. The relationship between reliability and number of questions suggests that the scale be as long as the traffic will bear within the limit just noted. Experimental evidence on this point for this type of scale might well be obtained.

Construction of Individual Scales

In the following illustration, the individual scale has been constructed in the form of a question followed by a series of five statements intended to describe clearly recognizable types of performance, each of which is qualitatively and quantitatively different from the other. Hopefully, the more vivid, distinct, and clearly defined the descriptions of the levels of performance are, the more intense will be the concentration of the rater on each separate level and the less likely he will be to rate an individual at the same point on the continuum in regard to each aspect of performance.

As in many aspects of personnel administration, the development of a scale of this sort, closely related as it must be to specific aspects of performance in a particular type of job, requires the collaboration of psychologists and subject-matter experts, at least for professional positions. Given sufficient time the psychologist could learn in detail the intricacies of the jobs as well as of approved and disapproved methods of performing their numerous duties. Even then, however, he would not be able to recall illustrations of actual performance. It would seem quicker and more efficient to teach a subject-matter consultant the essentials of construction. Moreover, it seems reasonable to assume that the validity of the scales will be increased by the use of competent consultants familiar with the contents of the specific jobs under consideration. In the actual collaborative undertaking, as in any joint work between members of two different professions, an understanding must be reached on the contribution each is equipped to make so that the finished product represents a synthesis of the best each has to offer, in this case the most appropriate subject-matter content cast into the most effective measurement form.

Illustrative Scale

The following illustration of a scale and its derivation may be provocative. Although the position referred to happens to be in the case work field, the method is applicable to other fields.

TABLE I. ILLUSTRATIVE INDIVIDUAL SCALE

<i>Duty</i>	<i>Standard of Performance</i>
To conduct a fair and unprejudiced investigation; to record significant data in case records; to confer with agency personnel regarding case situations.	Worker accepts attitudes, customs, and behavior patterns which differ from his own. He is unbiased in his approach to and exploration of clients' situations and maintains objectivity in securing, recording, and discussing these situations.
<i>Element</i>	
As evidenced in case records and discussions, to what extent does this worker show an unprejudiced understanding of attitudes, customs, or other aspects of behavior which differ from his own?	
Shows marked resistance to most manifestations of differences	Is noticeably disturbed by certain differences, although not always or to the same degree Actually succeeds in controlling expression of his own feelings, although spontaneous responses are likely to be negative Understands and does not react negatively to differences. Sometimes utilizes their values to advantage in work with people Accepts such behavior with a high degree of objectivity and maintains a constructive approach to it.

Avoidance of Common Errors in Judgment

The "halo" effect and other tendencies blurring the judgment of raters have been pointed out by numerous writers. These, of course, should be reduced as much as possible by the very construction of the scale itself. One can, for example, take precautions to make reasonably sure that the words used mean approximately the same thing to all raters, that the examples of performance used are proper to the aspects being covered, and that the question itself is suitably related to the duties and the standards. Likewise, whether or not the levels of performance named are separate and distinct levels and whether they flow in an orderly sequence can be satisfactorily determined. A consensus of competent judgment secured under controlled conditions can be utilized effectively at several points in scale construction to increase the merits of the instrument.

A conviction of reality can be imparted through colorful, imaginative treatment of content and through use of concrete specific language. Idiomatic professional terminology is enhancing at the upper limit as are colloquialisms at the lower.

Some Comments on Problems of Weighting and Scoring

Without pretense at coverage of technical problems in weighting and scoring, certain points demand consideration.

Clearly, not all aspects of performance are equally important; and arbitrary decision is an inadequate basis for determining relative importance. Even if external weights, usually numerical, are assigned by virtue of empirical results, they may well be a source of irritation and confusion to the rater as he makes his judgment. Possibly the most sensible approach is to determine the weights by empirical means and to weight the scale internally, i.e., to add questions on the more significant topics in proportion to the degree

of their significance. If this method is used every question may be assigned the same value and the scoring process becomes easy. A disadvantage would occur if length became excessive.

The obvious purpose of scoring is to place the individuals in rank order and to make ready comparisons among them. Simplicity and objectivity are primary requisites. Practicality suggests a numerical system with a single score on a scale containing enough integers for one to be assigned to each distinguishable level of performance.

Percentiles or other types of derived scores are useful additions. Translation to adjectives representing broad levels is a popular way of expressing to an employee the range within which his score falls.

The idea of ranking persons in order of competence has not achieved great popularity in our field! Much of the scepticism is certainly justified. Yet choices involving rank order must be made, and it is only when symbols become sacred that they become dangerous. A practical problem may illustrate the usefulness of a rank order. Suppose a large agency wishes to promote one of several hundred case workers to a supervisory position. No one person could possibly know the strengths and weaknesses of all of these persons. Even reading all the evaluations would be a major undertaking. One might, however, estimate that detailed consideration should be given to all of those with scores of 80 or above, and that, other things being equal, the highest ranking person should be promoted. The process of selection then becomes a manageable task limited to the group whose previous work experience has been superior. Even with smaller numbers, the process merits attention. The judgment exercised in determining the lower limit, in the illustration a score of 80, is in a sense an arbitrary decision, but one that must be made in selection for any purpose.

A word of caution on comparability of scores may not be amiss. Strict comparability even under the best conditions can hardly be secured, although every effort should be made to make ratings sufficiently comparable for practical usefulness. It would be stupid to say that a score of 90 as given by one rater, whether or not corrected for certain types of errors, is necessarily lower than a score of 92 given by another. Nevertheless, this degree of comparability is a necessary objective if ratings by two supervisors are to be used together in any way.

The judgment of the rater is less likely to be obscured by concern with results if the scoring is handled separately from the rating process. When the final score diverges markedly from the over-all judgment of the rater, additional analysis by the rater is indicated, with recognition that the error may occur either in the over-all judgment or in the individual judgments.

The importance of objectivity in scoring has perhaps been less recognized than the desirability for objectivity in carrying out the rating process itself. Objectivity in scoring implies, among other things, that the score shall be independent of the scorer or, differently expressed, that any number of scorers using the defined system will arrive at the same result. Certainly no two persons would read the same single page to find identical meaning. Language is too loose, too dependent upon the reader. So, just as in the scale predefined standards are set up, in the scoring process the system to be used must be clearly predefined, the method of computation exact. The scoring process, when accurately completed, automatically pro-

duces an ordering of the persons' ratings with respect to the components included in the scale.

Conclusion

The processes in making and measuring judgments of performance are extremely complex. The task of measuring performance is to show the more and the less of the desired quality for each aspect of performance and to combine these values into understandable composite scores from which comparisons among individuals may be made. Devices for facilitating objectivity are available. Necessity demands that social workers discover and utilize these in attacking the problems in evaluation of personnel. For the future, the continual sorting of the more competent performers from the less may be expected to yield greater concurrence within the profession on the significance of the phenomena with which it deals.

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1946 Delegate Conference Program

Proposals for membership action at the 1946 Delegate Conference were sent to AASW chapters in January. These include statements on medical care and on housing, to be added to the Association's Platform on the Public Social Services. After the next meeting of the National Board the first part of March, there may also be submitted statements on services to youth, child welfare services, and on an international organization for social welfare. Final revisions in the Statement on Personnel Practices in Social Work (draft statement in the April 1945 COMPASS) will be sent to chapters after the Board meeting and the statement will be presented for action at the Conference.

Chapters have also received proposed changes in the national bylaws. Most of the revisions would bring up to date the procedures followed in the election process and other routines. Policy changes include a two-year term for officers of

the Association and changing the date for beginning the program year from October 1st to July 1st.

There will probably be reports without specific proposals for action from various other national committees including the committees on Education for Social Work, Civil Service (which will present the subject of a national examining unit for social work), Public Social Policies, Group Work, International Organization for Social work, and Research and Statistics.

Highlight of the 1946 Conference is expected to be the 25th Anniversary Dinner on Saturday evening, May 18. Members of the AASW and their friends are welcome to attend the dinner. Tickets will be sold at the entrance to the Ballroom in the Hotel Statler, Buffalo, where the Delegate Conference will be in session on May 17, 18 and 19.

National Emergency Conference on Jobs and Security

Along with 76 other national organizations, the American Association of Social Workers took part in the National Emergency Conference on Jobs and Security held in Washington on December 7, 1945. The call to the meeting was issued by church, labor, consumer, and civil liberties groups which asked liberal and progressive organizations to unite behind a social action program underwriting full employment and social security.

Bishop Bernard J. Sheil presided over the morning session on "Economic Problems" and, after some graphic presentations of data on price control, tax programs, and employment legislation by Senator O'Mahoney, Congresswoman Woodhouse, and Congressman Lynch, he conducted a lively panel discussion on economic problems facing the worker, the farmer, the professional person, the veteran, and the minority groups.

At the luncheon meeting at the Statler Hotel, Mrs. J. Borden Harriman was chairman. The speakers were Congresswoman Helen Gahagan Douglas and Dr. Julian Huxley, both of whom used as their theme the "Control of Atomic Energy."

The afternoon session centered upon problems growing out of the exercise of basic civil liberties. Again an impressive panel of Congressional speakers presented legislative issues involved in the abolition of the poll tax, enactment of a permanent F.E.P.C., discontinuance of the Committee on Un-American Activities, and the prevention of enactment of anti-labor measures. Senator Mead, Congressmen LaFollette, Patterson, and Neely were followed in their more formal speeches by informal discussants from the fields of radio, church, minority groups, and labor.

While seventeen bills currently before Congress were considered, four were given priority by the Conference. These were the minimum wage bill, the Douglas resolution calling for Big Three unity on atomic energy, the Patton bill for veteran's housing, and the anti-poll tax bill.

Since the emergency conference, there have been two meetings of a continuing committee to plan strategy for effectuating the program on legislation adopted by the conferees. Attention was given to mobilizing of organizations and individuals to interview Congressmen in their home communities during the Christmas recess and through mass rallies to register concern for the promotion of progressive legislation. The continuation committee also worked out suggestions for the long-time organization of a conference to coordinate social action.

At an organizational meeting on January 19, 1946, the National Conference on Jobs and Security was constituted and the following slate of officers elected: Mrs. J. Borden Harriman, Chairman; Bishop Bernard J. Sheil, Rev. Daniel A. Poling, Rabbi Stephen S. Wise, and Dr. Mordecai Johnson, Vice-chairman; and Dr. Clark Foreman, Secretary. The Conference proposes to serve as a "meeting-ground for representatives of a group of national organizations who are prepared to work jointly to forward a series of measures on which they can generally agree." Participating organizations will retain full autonomy and need not subscribe to action not entirely in line with their own policies. At the same time they will find in the new organization a clearing-house and channel for information and action on vital common issues demanding joint activity.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION (Continued from page 19)

fare, and (3) to make "a general review of international organization in the social field with a view to making recommendations to the Economic and Social Council at the earliest possible date regarding the structure of commissions and committees and possibly of new specialized agencies which it appears desirable to set up." The Executive Committee in recommending a Temporary Social Commission recognized that "the Economic and Social Council will require expert advice on social problems and objectives and the coordination of the policies and activities of specialized agencies and commissions dealing with these problems."

In order to fulfill the functions assigned to it we are convinced that the Temporary Social Commission must be composed of persons technically qualified in the various social fields within its scope of interest, including social welfare. Neither the assumption of responsibility for substantive prob-

lems requiring immediate attention or an adequate general review of international organization in the social field can be assured unless the commission, and such committees it may set up to perform these duties and functions, is composed of persons chosen for their technical competence. We believe it essential, also, that in carrying out its assignment the commission consult with official and voluntary agencies of recognized standing, and that procedures be worked out for a continuing line of communication with these agencies. While the commission is carrying out its responsibility for substantive social welfare problems requiring immediate attention and for the League's activities in traffic in women and children and child welfare, we believe it should be clearly understood that these are to become the responsibility, as soon as possible, of an inter-governmental social welfare agency, permanently established and comprehensive in scope.

The Twenty-Seventh Annual Meeting of the American Association of Schools of Social Work

EDUCATION for social work was discussed in detail at the Twenty-Seventh Annual Meeting of the American Association of Schools of Social Work held in Pittsburgh January 24-27. The attendance was well over 200 and included representatives from forty-four of the forty-six member schools, from other professional associations and from local and national agencies and federal bureaus. The Department of Social Work of the University of British Columbia and the School of Social Work of the University of Utah were the only two schools not represented. The School of Social Work of the University of Hawaii was represented for the first time since its admission to the Association in 1942.

The meeting gave the following committees of the Association an opportunity to come together for discussion and to report on their progress during the year and their plans for the future.¹ The Accrediting Committee, the Curriculum Planning Committee, the Committee on Preprofessional Education for Social Work, the Committee on the Preparation of Public Assistance Teaching Materials, the Committee on International Cooperation and the Committee on the Schools of Social Work and the Returning Veteran. Since the material being discussed was of general interest, the meetings of the last three committees listed above were open to all interested persons attending the annual meeting.

During his report as chairman of the Committee on International Cooperation, Father Lucian Lauerma of the National Catholic School of Social Service reported briefly on the First Pan-American Congress of Social Service which was held in Chile in September and which he and Mr. Walter Pettit of the New York School of Social Work attended as members of a committee of six appointed by the Department of State.

As a result of the discussion in the meeting of the Committee on Schools of Social Work and the Returning Veteran, it was recommended to and approved by the member schools that the national office of AASSW be authorized to instigate and maintain a current survey of present and potential capacities for new students in the schools and to act as a clearing house for students seeking

schools which they can enter and for schools which are already filled to capacity wishing to refer applicants to other schools which still have vacancies.

The history and plans of the Curriculum Planning Committee have already been presented by Miss Florence Day, Chairman of the Committee, in her article, "Current Developments in the Graduate Professional Curriculum" in the January 1946 issue of *THE COMPASS*.

Both Mr. Joseph Anderson, Executive Secretary, and Miss Sue Spencer, Assistant Executive Secretary, of the American Association of Social Workers, were present at the meetings and they reported on the activities of the Wartime Committee on Personnel and the AASW Committee on Education for Social Work, outlining the past and present activities and the future plans of these committees.

A joint session with the Pittsburgh Chapter of the AASW opened the conference on Thursday evening with an address by Miss Alice Padgett, a member of the faculty of the School of Social Work, Catholic University of America, and chairman of the Civil Service Subcommittee of the AASW Wartime Committee on Personnel. Her subject was "A National Examining Unit for Social Work." Mr. Wilbur Newstetter of the School of Applied Social Sciences, University of Pittsburgh, and Miss Sue Spencer were discussants.

At the Annual Dinner Meeting, Friday night, Miss Anna E. King of the School of Social Service, Fordham University, and President of AASSW, gave the presidential address, "The Place of the Professional Educational Association in the Field of Social Work"² and Miss Martha Branscombe, Child Welfare Specialist, United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, spoke on "National Needs for Social Work Personnel." Mr. Leonard W. Mayo, School of Applied Social Sciences, Western Reserve University, addressed the group at the Luncheon Meeting on the subject, "Road to Community Reorganization." His address was based on the studies and reports of the Committee on Reorganization of Community Services of the Woman's Foundation, Inc., of which he was co-chairman. At another general session Mr. Karl de Schweinitz, Director of the Committee on Education and Social Security of the American Council on Education, discussed with the deans and

¹All of the committee reports and the addresses presented at this Annual Meeting will be available about March 1 in the *Proceedings of the Twenty-Seventh Annual Meeting* published by the national office of the American Association of Schools of Social Work, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, and for sale at the price of \$1.00.

²Published in this issue of *THE COMPASS*.

directors of the schools and other interested faculty members the problems of "Procuring Teaching Material Underlying the Operation of Public Social Services."

One day of the meeting was devoted almost entirely to Workshop Discussions on Teaching Methods. Discussions were held on: Content and Methods of First Year Courses in Public Welfare, Case Work and Group Work; Basic Courses in Research; and Integration of Class and Field Instruction in Case Work and Group Work. In addition, two special discussion groups were held; one led by Miss Arlien Johnson of the Graduate School of Social Work, University of Southern California, on Administrative Problems for Deans and Directors in Schools of Social Work and one led by Miss Mary Sydney Branch, Consultant on Preprofessional Education (AASSW) and School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago, on the Content of Preprofessional Courses. At the Annual Business Meeting, Miss Grace Coyle presented the highlights of the workshops on case work, group work, public welfare and research and Miss

Branch summarized the discussion on preprofessional courses. Miss Marietta Stevenson, University of Illinois Curriculum in Social Welfare Administration, then reviewed the discussion of the Workshop on Administrative Problems and presented for the Workshop the request that the Board of Directors of AASSW give immediate attention to the problem of personnel for teaching and the suggestion that the Wartime Committee on Personnel might be requested to explore the problem and to make recommendations as to (1) recruitment of teaching personnel (2) training and (3) placement.

Two business sessions were held during the time of the meetings. All of the committee reports were presented at these sessions and the current business matters of the Association were discussed and voted upon. At this time, the University of Illinois Curriculum in Social Welfare Administration was accepted for provisional membership in the Association as a two-year school and The University of Oklahoma School of Social Work and West Virginia University Department of Social Work for full membership as one-year schools.

The Baby in the Placement Process

From the Pennsylvania School of Social Work comes an announcement of the publication of a pamphlet "The Role of the Baby in the Placement Process." It deals with professional practice in an area of child placement which has not heretofore received general attention but has far-reaching implications in relation to the pressing problem of adoption practice.

1946-47 Fellowships and Scholarships

The AASW is able to supply the leaflet listing current fellowships and scholarships in social work in quantity. There is no charge. Requests should be sent to the national office.

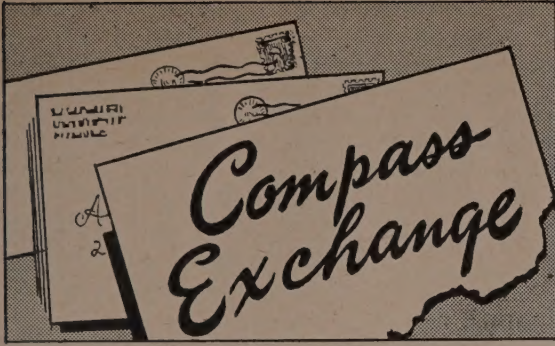
Confidentiality in Social Work

There has been a large demand for the Washington, D. C. Chapter's report on "Principles of Confidentiality in Social Work." This report is

25 cents and can be secured from the national office of AASW or from the chapter office, Mrs. Nellie Bain, 2806 31st Street, S. E., Apt. B-689, Washington 20, D. C.

Quite So

While the more flagrant aspects of a boom situation did not develop, a few incidents did reveal the presence of processes resulting from a disturbed social metabolism: A stranger was found inert in his automobile on the public square. The car was in a "no parking" space and it was established the man had been dead four days. The events suggest a decline in interdependency, a rapidly increasing anonymity and shift to secondary relationships, in a community built on primary group organization.—From "*Neosho, Mo., Under the Impact of Army Camp Construction: A Dynamic Situation.*" *University of Missouri Studies*, 1944.



How Successful Is Our Examining?

TO THE EDITOR:

As suggested by the editors of *THE COMPASS*, Dr. Adkins' and Dr. Mosier's articles do raise some pertinent questions for social workers who are interested in the results of sound personnel selection techniques. Dr. Adkins finally puts on the table frankly some of the current shortcomings of the written examination, and I think we owe her a vote of thanks. Public welfare administrators have been complaining these many years that the examining process was not filling the bill, particularly for the higher level positions. All too often the psychometrician has stubbornly defended the written examination as the infallible part of the examining process, and the social worker has as stubbornly protested its inadequacy in its present form, with the result that mutual distrust often prevented a cooperative attack of the problem. The AASW is to be commended for the work of the Civil Service Subcommittee which apparently is tackling the whole subject with vigor and objectivity.

By Dr. Adkins' analysis of the kind of validation that should precede the administration of a good written examination we are inevitably reminded that thus far we have not had such techniques applied, or if they have been, they haven't produced the desired results. Research on the problem, as costly and time-consuming as it would be, seems urgently needed if the examination part of the merit principle is to maintain its good reputation with social workers. As she suggests, social workers must themselves contribute in large measure to such research, and must be able to come to some agreement on what a successful social worker is. It seems to me that Dr. Adkins has stated the real problem when she points out that "... perhaps we can agree that for the present the use of a competitive written test may be limited to appraising pertinent knowledges, skills and abilities that are distinct from personality factors." She goes on to relate the difficulties in testing abilities, and gives the impression that as yet we have not progressed very far in testing abilities of social workers. How much of the social work-

er's or the administrator's skill and abilities can be isolated from "personality factors"? How many people are there who can choose the right answer from five possible answers on a multiple-choice item without having the slightest ability to follow the course of action suggested by the question? From several years of puzzling over some of the mysterious certificates of the top-ranking eligibles from registers, I have become cynical indeed about the answers.

Dr. Mosier gives us cold comfort with regard to the rating of training and experience as a means of filling in the gaps left by the written examination. I agree that as currently carried on in many programs, the rating of training and experience often has ludicrous results. It seems, however, that for the responsible positions where considerable experience and training are required as preliminary conditions, some methods could be developed for a more realistic evaluation. In our efforts to be objective in arriving at a score for training and experience we have sometimes gone too far and abandoned our common sense.

While Dr. Adkins and Dr. Mosier treated specialized subjects only, it does seem that they both dismissed rather too quickly the possibilities of using the practical experience of social agencies in explorative research. After all we would assume that the final criterion of the test is the employee's performance. There are some social agencies which make real use of the probationary period, and have rather extensive data in the form of written evaluations and service rating charts. While I agree that service rating systems as a whole are not at present very reliable measures, there must be some value to be gained in reviewing what the agency considers to be a successful or non-successful worker as demonstrated by the persons who failed their probationary period, those who are performing on a superior or mediocre basis, etc. I know that it would be difficult indeed to refine such criteria to apply to an individual test or item, but it seems to me that the psychometricians could well be seeking information about the subsequent employment records of the persons the merit system offices certify. They would probably find that social workers have given as much and probably more attention to the whole difficult problem of evaluating performance on the job as any profession. Dr. Adkins' suggestion of a research project involving rating for specific purposes of evaluating tests might well be followed through in some agency where service ratings have been taken seriously.

Pending the day when tests can be said to test all that we could wish, it seems pertinent to look at what actually happens now. Granted that the formal examining process has made the initial selection by weeding out the people who do not meet the minimum qualifications of education and expe-

rience (and it will be a long time before we can safely yield up these in favor of tests alone), and those who did not pass the written examination, the operating agency then has a real selection job to do. Few administrators would be content to appoint the person who made the highest grade of the three certified with no further knowledge of them, particularly for a supervisory or administrative position. As yet many merit system offices have not been geared to doing the kind of investigation job that seems necessary for intelligent selection. As a personnel officer in a welfare department, I found that actual decisions on appointments were made on the basis of reference material exchanged from welfare agency to welfare agency, plus agency personal interviews and perhaps considerable investigation, depending upon the position. In considering the whole area of personnel selection techniques, it seems to me that the troublesome problem of the agency employment reference has been neglected. This is just one of the phases of the selection process and other personnel responsibilities which must be carried on by the operating agency which has been neglected. All the while, however, decisions must be made in the good old-fashioned judgmental way administrators have of weighing an applicant's total experience pattern, reference material, and his estimate of the personality and ability of the individual to do a particular job gained from the best evidence he can find. I have an idea that there is not going to be any substitute for this process for a long, long time to come. As much as we would like to think that Mary Smith, who made 96.44 is a better prospect than Jane Jones who made 96.33, we know that there is just as much chance that Susie Williams, with a grade of 89.00, has more of what it takes to do the job. At this stage of the game, we may, upon investigation find that Jane and Mary have been failures, or mediocre performers, on job after job, but that Susie has been successful. Of course, the saddest plight of the administrator comes when he finds that Susie, also, is apparently ill-fitted for the job, and that all three want it. Probably most administrators have been faced with this dilemma, part of which I admit is their own and the public's responsibility for not providing the kind of salaries and agency that will attract the best applicants. It remains a serious problem, nevertheless, and one which can be solved only through progressive and cooperative work on the part of personnel technicians and administrators.

Although the past few years of severe personnel shortages has almost reversed the role of selection from the agency to the applicant, we hope that a better time is coming when there will be enough qualified applicants to make the examining process of critical importance again in the ranking of eligibles on a register. At least in a few jurisdictions during the shortage, the examination process was little more than a qualifying measure for

persons already on the job or recruited by the operating agencies. For this reason, it seems to me that some of us need just the stimulus that is now being supplied through the AASW committee work to turn our energies toward helping the personnel technicians develop better examination processes.

MARTHA HORNE

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Aptitude Tests Needed for Social Work

TO THE EDITOR:

Dr. Adkins' and Dr. Mosier's papers more than adequately describe the principles of construction and analysis of written tests and rating of training and experience in public personnel selection. Therefore, it will not be my purpose to discuss many of the points raised by either of the two writers. However, from the point of view of a test technician, as well as of a social worker, there are certain aspects of the whole problem which seem well worth the consideration of the professional group.

When Dr. Adkins states, "If competent judges can agree, also, on *which* social workers are superior and *which* ones inferior, great improvements in the selection of social workers should be feasible, and the extent of improvement should eventually be determinable," she reveals the key to the whole problem of the use of test techniques for the selection of competent social workers. At the same time, she indicates an area of responsibility which must be assumed by the professional group. Without a definition of what constitutes professional standards of social work no valid examination can be developed. It then follows that professional social workers must agree upon certain common denominators which are basic in determining competency of practice and areas of knowledge, skills, and abilities. No subject-matter test or evaluation of past experience will necessarily guarantee that the possessor of this knowledge or experience will be qualified to practice, and it seems to be on this point that many social workers challenge the validity of a testing program. Certainly, a social worker must have some knowledge about the development of social work, principles of social work, legislation, and many other matters of professional content coupled with a general understanding of the socio-economic structure of this country.

However, the question may still be raised, is the person who possesses this knowledge and who has been gainfully employed in the field qualified to practice? Is it not necessary for the test to probe further in an effort to determine not only

tact, cooperation, the ability to get along with others, and socially desirable attitudes, but the actual ability to diagnose and meet the needs of the clients? The discipline required of one practicing in the field of social case work—the need for an awareness of himself in his relationship to clients—is an area in which probably no test has, as yet, been devised. It is true that the oral interview is designed for this purpose but it has certain limitations. It is difficult to obtain the services of several competent interviewers at one time. Practical considerations limit the amount of time which can be devoted to the training of interviewers and the length of any one interview. Also, some of the values of an oral interview, which is inherently subjective, are lost when judgments are converted into numeric scores. On the other hand, the probationary period should be considered as much a part of the examination process as the examination itself. A skillful supervisor can, during this period, evaluate job performance and eliminate those whose personalities are not suitable.

Up to this point, the discussion has assumed that persons taking examinations are graduates of a school of social work and may or may not have had some experience in the field. From a practical point of view, it should be remembered that standards for entrance into the field of public social work vary from state to state. Some may require graduation from a school of social work, while others may require only elementary education. Experience requirements may range from none to three or four years, with or without education. Where neither experience nor professional education is required, development of a knowledge test in social work or the evaluation of experience and training becomes meaningless.

Recognizing the fact that for some time to come admission standards may be low and that the number of graduates of schools of social work may not meet the demand for social workers, it would seem that the professional group should widen their interest in the development of adequate tests to include construction of attitude and aptitude tests. If it can be determined what are some of the basic attitudes and aptitudes that are a part of the essential equipment of social workers, the use of such a test would be truly useful in the selection of untrained personnel in the public service. This type of test would be welcomed by many a civil service agency for examination purposes. A test of this nature can be useful only insofar as its validity has been determined. Validity can be determined by correlation of performance on the test with performance on the job. The supervised field work in the schools of social work is the best possible controlled environment for evaluating success on the job. The schools would in time be able to determine whether the

factors included in such a test tended to predict future success in the field.

With the professional body of social workers making use of the principles discussed by Dr. Adkins and Dr. Mosier, improvement in selection of good social workers would seem to be assured. Many of the problems raised by the two writers can be answered only through close cooperative endeavor.

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An Experiment in Testing Use of Knowledge

TO THE EDITOR:

In reply to your letter of January 3 inviting comment on Miss Padgett's and Dr. Mosier's articles and asking that I present a little of the California State Social Welfare Department's attempt to formulate new test materials I should like to present the following.

It is quite clear that the committee studying the possibility of a national examining unit has a most realistic understanding of the difficulties facing the psychometrician. In the field of social work nearly all tasks placed before the worker make demands for skills in interpersonal relations and for judgments characteristic of supervisory or administrative positions. Measurement in these areas has not been generally accepted as sufficiently satisfactory. Dr. Mosier's paper is a most comprehensive presentation of the difficulties and limitations of measurement through the rating of training and experience. The literature also bears many references to the limitations of the oral interview. In terms of time, effort and expense it is generally conceded that the most satisfactory avenue is the written test.

When the committee states, "It believes that the written test can be used to test for knowledge of facts, knowledge of skills and knowledge of appropriate attitudes but that it cannot screen out the person who despite knowing the appropriate attitudes may fail to practice them," I can understand how they would be led to such a belief but I cannot agree with them. When tests are designed to measure the examinee's knowledge about facts, skills and attitudes rather than to measure the use of facts, skills and attitudes, it does not mean that the latter cannot be constructed. It was on the hypothesis that an objective written test could be constructed which would yield measures of *use* rather than measures of *knowledge about* that the California project was undertaken in 1942. Unfortunately the project was interrupted by the demands of the war period and has never been sufficiently explored with respect to its validity.

The initial analyses based upon a scoring key made up by experts in the social work field yielded a large number of items having coefficients of internal consistency more than high enough to permit their use for at least group testing. Just how the test attempted to measure use of facts, skills, and attitudes is evident in the following descriptions of its parts.

Reading Test. This test consisted of an "Old Age Assistance" law made up for the purpose, a series of case summaries, and an answer sheet on which the examinee recorded his judgment as to whether the "client" was entitled to assistance from (a) "state funds only," (b) "state and county funds," (c) there was "insufficient information" and, if so, under what section of the law, or (d) the client was "ineligible" and, if so, under what section of the law.

Form Completion Test. This test presented an eleven page verbatim interview and a typical face sheet partially filled out as one might expect a receptionist to have done. The examinee was required to complete and correct this face sheet from the information given in the interview material. Misspellings, number inversions, improper placement of information, and omissions were among the tasks placed before the examinee.

Case Record Test. In this test the same eleven page verbatim interview was used as was used in the previous test. The examinee was presented with a series of three alternative formulations of how parts of the interview might have been written for case record inclusion. The examinee indicated in each group the one thought to be the best. Inclusion of extraneous material, omission of important material, and confusion of fact with opinion were among the discriminanda.

Letter Writing Test. In this test the examinee was presented with a letter written by a minister raising a question as to the adequacy of an agency's discharge of its functions in the case of certain family, a summary of the family's case record, and six paragraphs of a letter of reply. Each paragraph was formulated in three alternative ways: (a) as a worker might who tended to be overly aggressive, (b) as a worker might who tended to be overly submissive, and (c) as a worker might who tended to have a better balance and who could enlist the aid of an outsider without being subject to the outsider's dictation. The examinee was asked to select that alternative which seemed best. Subsequent analysis of this test alone, even with only six items, showed high indices of internal consistency for all but one of the eighteen possible choices. In other words, those who tended

to deviate toward the selection of the aggressive alternatives did so with high consistency and those who when not selecting the "middle of the road" items selected the submissive items, tended to do so consistently.

Interviewing Skills Test. This test consisted of five subtests. A group of three verbatim interviews were presented. Each line was numbered so that a given response or part of a response might be referred to easily. The examinees were asked: (1) to identify certain worker responses as being one of fifteen described techniques; (2) to study a given response made by the worker and to study also three other responses which might have been made at that point by the worker and then to select the one which appeared most apt; (3) to identify in selected passages the significance of the immediate response of the client; (4) to identify reasonable diagnostic inferences made from selected client responses; and (5) to identify various stages and phases in interview progress. Every effort was made to eliminate technical terminology or phraseology which might facilitate response on the basis of a *knowledge* about. Every effort was made to design the alternative items in such a manner as to be very reasonable responses to a person holding attitudes considered less desirable or less suitable for social work.

It appeared from the statistical analyses that whatever the test measured it measured with a high degree of consistency and that each part was remarkably discrete in what it measured. It appeared further that attitudinal material was successfully measured. That the test yielded a reliable measure of agreement with experts was also clear. That the test yielded a very low measure of agreement with ratings obtained from County Directors was painfully apparent. The project to date has not yielded assurance that a test was developed which would pick workers with validity but the project has demonstrated that an approach can be made in terms of use of facts, skills and attitudes rather than in terms of knowledge about them.

In closing I should like also to point out the possibility of the institution of a series of tests, both knowledge and use tests, to be incorporated as an integral part of the probationary period. These could serve the dual function of providing the operating agency with diagnostic measures for use in assuring completeness of training and with achievement measures for estimating progress.

Thanking you for this opportunity to participate in the thinking with respect to the establishment of the examining unit, I am,

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Portland, Oregon